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At the peak of the 1955-56 winter season, 1,300 families and 5,600 single migrant workers were living in Dade County's urban areas and 71 labor camps. Most lived in overcrowded quarters, but the units were soundly constructed. Water and sewage were adequate, but there were many structural deficiencies, including lack of screens and lack of adequate bathing, laundry, and toilet facilities. Not enough kitchen equipment, beds, mattresses, or blankets were provided. Fire hazards were noted in 14 percent of the camps. Few camps provided health, recreation, child care, or religious facilities.

Despite many flaws, the quality of migratory labor housing had been improved over the years. Camps accommodating ten or more people were regulated by the Florida State Sanitary Code, and county health regulations supplemented the code. The Dade County Health Department started a three-year education and enforcement program in 1953; camps were inspected and violations were brought to the management's attention. Improvement was also facilitated by press publicity and the Florida Industrial Commission's policy of filling job orders only if housing was satisfactory.

Not enough new housing was built because of increased construction and land costs, zoning restrictions, and the growers' reluctance to invest in permanent facilities when they did not own the farmlands. Rapid tax amortization, low interest loans, housing operated by local public housing authorities, liberal zoning, and pooling arrangements were suggested as ways to stimulate construction.

Other recommendations for the solution of housing problems were enforcement and review of health and building regulations; initiation of educational programs to make growers and workers more aware of their responsibilities in housing matters; and provision of health, day care, recreation, and religious services or facilities.

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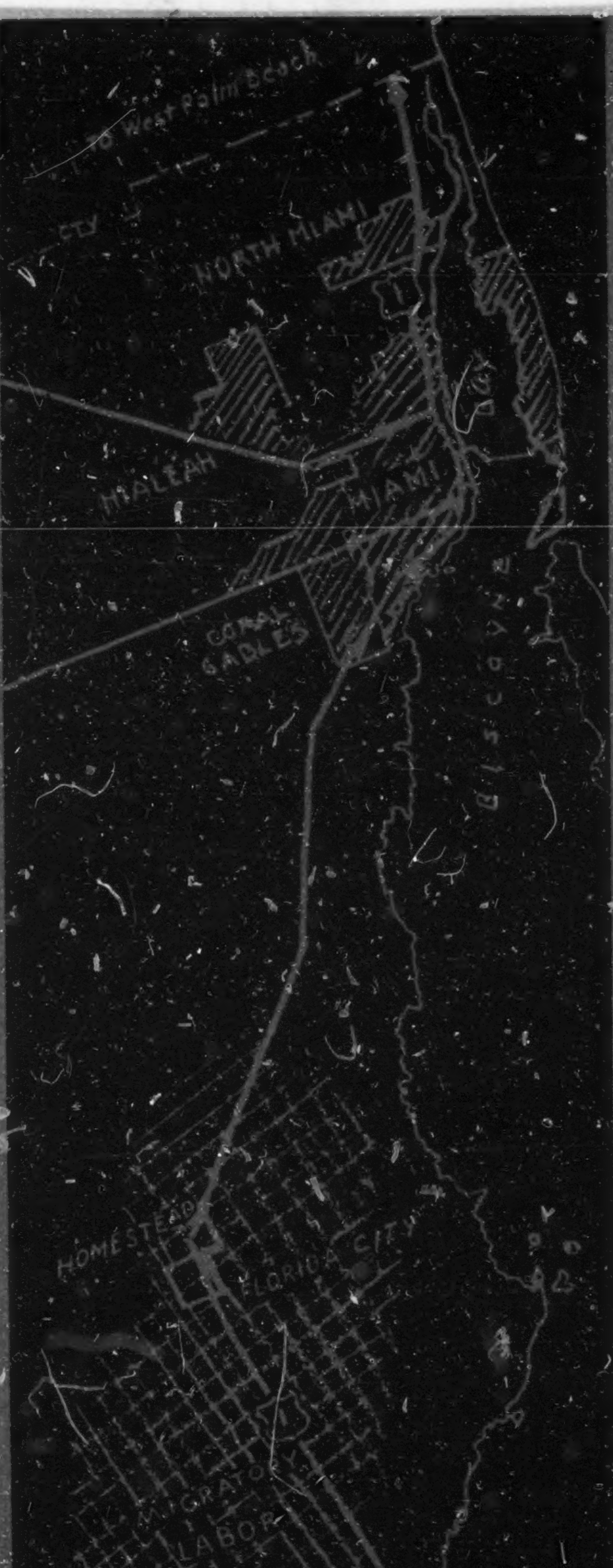
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Prepared for the
PRESIDENT'S COMMITTEE ON MIGRATORY LABOR
by the
UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
and the
FLORIDA INDUSTRIAL COMMISSION

This report was written by:
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Office of Program Review and Analysis

HOUSING FOR FLORIDA'S MIGRANTS

A Survey of
Migratory Farm Labor Housing in
Dade County, Florida

Prepared for the
PRESIDENT'S COMMITTEE ON MIGRATORY LABOR
by the
UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
and the
FLORIDA INDUSTRIAL COMMISSION

August 1958

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FOREWORD

This study was undertaken at the request of the President's Committee on Migratory Labor as part of its program for seeking solutions of migratory farm worker problems.

Recognizing housing to be a key migratory labor problem, the President's Committee on Migratory Labor asked the Bureau of Employment Security, U. S. Department of Labor, to develop and direct a pilot survey of the adequacy of migratory labor housing in Dade County. The survey was sponsored by the Florida Industrial Commission, James T. Vocelle, chairman. The methods used in this experimental survey may prove helpful to other agencies making similar studies.

This report was prepared in the Office of Program Review and Analysis by William Mirengoff and Albert L. Shostack under the general supervision of Mr. Louis Levine, Assistant Director of the Bureau. Mr. Mirengoff also directed the developmental and fieldwork, assisted by Mr. Shostack and Lester Rindler. The enumeration was done by V. A. Milton of the Atlanta Regional Office of BES, and Bryan M. Page, Alfonso Aguet, Charles B. Newton, Godwin R. Barnes, Irving J. Cohen, John E. Boyle, and Louis J. Conant of the Florida Industrial Commission. Ralph Moss, Florida Farm Placement Chief, facilitated arrangements for the fieldwork.

Cooperation was received from several Government agencies, including the Department of Agriculture and the Housing and Home Finance Agency. Merlin Smelker of the Housing and Home Finance Agency assisted in planning the study, and Arthur H. Neill, sanitation engineer of the Public Health Service, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, was particularly helpful in developing schedules and training enumerators. Earl E. Houseman of the Department of Agriculture, and Irving Gedanken, Bureau of Employment Security, helped work out the sampling procedures. C. P. Thayer, sanitarian for Dade County, was of great assistance in providing information on local conditions.

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SUMMARY

An estimated 1,300 migrant farmworker families and 5,600 single workers were living in Dade County's urban areas and 71 farm labor camps at the peak of the 1955–56 winter season. To house these people in accordance with the minimum sleeping-room space standards suggested by the President's Committee on Migratory Labor, at least 300 more family dwellings and 850 additional accommodations for single workers were needed. To meet the recommendations of the PCML, an additional substantial number of units were also needed to provide at least two rooms for each family preparing meals in its individual quarters. If an unusual freeze had not reduced the demand for labor, the housing shortage would have been much greater.

Most migrants lived in overcrowded quarters. Overcrowding was generally more prevalent in large camps than in small camps. It was worse among large families because of the tendency to house families in a single room.

Although housing was short, the dwellings occupied by Dade County migrants were generally of sound construction. Virtually all accommodations were served with adequate water supply and sewage disposal systems. In most instances the housing was in good repair and was equipped with windows and lights for each room. However, common structural shortcomings were absence of screens and insufficient bathing, laundry, and toilet facilities.

There were also many nonstructural housing deficiencies. Because almost all migrant families and many single workers prepared their own meals, failure to provide fixed or other types of kitchen equipment was a major problem. In this connection, migratory workers living in urban communities fared better than those in camps. Strangely enough, single workers were more frequently provided with stoves (usually kerosene burners) than were family groups—partly because family groups often carry such equipment with them. One-fourth of the 37 large- and medium-sized camps handled the problem of feeding their single workers by providing a central mess.

Another common deficiency was the lack of beds, mattresses, and blankets. Here again, single workers fared better than families.

Fire hazards were noted in 14 percent of the camps. Two out of every five camps did not have fire-extinguishing equipment within 100 feet of each building.

Although garbage and other refuse were transported from most camps at least every 2 days, the large drums used for storage were uncovered in 3 out of 5 camps. Not only was this unsightly, but it created a breeding ground for insects and other pests. This condition, in part, was responsible for the fact that one-third of the camps were rated as dirty.

Closely related to the housing of migratory workers are such considerations as health, recreation, child care, and religious facilities. These facilities are particularly important to people who are unfamiliar with the community and depend upon the camp for such services. Very few of the camps had done anything along these lines. Only five of the large camps had health and recreation facilities. Two camps had child-care supervision, and 13 helped arrange for religious services.

An insight into how the migrants viewed their housing problems was obtained by asking a sample of workers to comment on housing conditions. Among the camp families, one-third rated their housing as "good," almost half considered it "fair," and one-fifth thought it was "bad." Single workers in camps and migrants in urban communities were somewhat more favorably disposed toward their accommodations.

When asked to indicate the housing features they liked best, the migrants mentioned well-constructed quarters, sufficient space, privacy, availability of detached family housing units, and good supervision of the camps. A significant number of single workers mentioned the availability of recreational facilities and the proximity of the camp to urban areas.

Features the migrants in the camps liked least included dilapidated structures, overcrowding, and lack of privacy and facilities for family living. Other shortcomings from the migrants' point of view were inadequate toilet and bathing facilities, lack of school facilities, and lack of camp supervision. The workers also stressed the need to control drinking, gambling, and other unwholesome social conditions. Migrants in town generally had the same views.

The migrants had definite preferences in the matter of housing arrangements. Most wanted to live in detached family-type houses in small camps or in urban areas. Few actually had the kind of quarters they preferred.

Considerable progress has been made in improving the quality of migratory labor housing in Dade County. Much of this improvement reflects the activities of the State and local governments. Camps accommodating 10 or more persons are regulated by the Florida State Sanitary Code which provides for the licensing and inspection of camps. Supplementing the State code are county health regulations.

These regulations have been actively enforced. In 1953, the Dade County Health Department embarked on an intensive 3-year education and enforcement program. A full-time sanitarian was assigned to inspect farm-labor camps, to bring violations to the attention of the management, and to follow through in compliance actions. Such efforts were highly successful and resulted in conversion of toilets to flush type and in a marked improvement of water supplies, sewage systems, and refuse disposal.

Attention given to migratory-labor housing by the press and the Florida Industrial Commission's policy of filling job orders only if housing is adequate have helped to improve accommodations for migrants in Dade County. Improvements have also resulted from inspections by British West Indian officials of quarters occupied by their nationals.

By and large, Dade County growers have accepted the responsibility for housing their transient work force. As the number of migrants increased, many growers have made creditable efforts to meet the rising need. The greatest expansion of housing facilities has occurred since World War II.

Farm-labor camps involve considerable initial and continuing costs. The average large camp was valued at about $117,000 and required $11,300 for a year's operation. Medium-size camps were estimated to be worth about $33,000 on the average, and cost $3,200 to run for a year. The average small camp was valued at $7,600, with annual expenses of about $700. Since substantial sums are involved in acquiring and operating camps, the profitability of farming operations is the most important consideration governing progress in providing additional housing.

Dade County growers consider the expenditures for migratory-labor housing to be a cost of their farming operations and do not generally charge rent. However, the camps that provided central feeding did charge for food—about $11 per week for each occupant. Most growers recognized that farm-labor camps assured them of a stable labor supply during periods when labor was in great demand.

Although there are definite plans to expand migratory-labor housing in Dade County, they are not substantial enough to keep up with the continuing rise in the number of migrants. The increasing use of "Texas-Mexicans," who typically travel in large family groups, particularly will aggravate the already severe shortage of larger family dwellings.

There are a number of reasons why additional housing is not being built at a faster rate. First, increased costs. Not only have construction costs gone up, but the population pressure around Miami has substantially raised the price of land. Another important consideration has been the zoning restrictions. Permanent residents usually oppose the construction of camps in residential parts of the county. Finally, there is an understandable reluctance by growers to invest in permanent housing facilities when they do not own their farmlands. Thirty-six percent of the camp operators, probably the most stable growers in Dade County, rent all or part of the land they farm.

Several suggestions were made for stimulating additional housing construction: (*a*) Provide for rapid tax amortization on migratory-labor housing facilities; (*b*) make low interest loans available to build migratory-labor housing; (*c*) construct additional housing to be operated by local public housing authorities; (*d*) liberalize zoning restrictions; and (*e*) because not all camps reach peak occupancy at the same time, work out reciprocal "pooling" arrangements so that growers caught in a tight housing situation may use the surplus housing of other growers. Continued enforcement and review of health and building regulations in the light of standards suggested by the President's Committee on Migratory Labor; an expanded educational program to make growers and workers more aware of their responsibilities in housing matters; and provision of health services, day care for migrant children, recreation facilities, and access to religious services would also help solve housing and related problems.

INTRODUCTION

A Snapshot

Toward evening, on a hot mid-April day, trucks and buses rumbled across the lower half of Dade County bringing the harvest hands back to their quarters after a day in the fertile tomato, bean, and potato fields. Most of them were headed for the 71 farm-labor camps scattered throughout the southeastern corner of the county. Some, however, would discharge their passengers in the small communities where migrant workers rented temporary quarters.

One truck carried Jack Harris. Four months ago Jack, his wife, and 2 children (1 of working age) left their home in Concord, Ga., to participate in Florida's winter vegetable harvest. They had been coming to the same camp in Dade County for 4 years and could remember when things were a lot different.

The camp was typical for the area. Upon Jack's arrival, he was assigned to a single bare room which would serve as sleeping, cooking, and eating quarters for him and his family. The building was a sound cinder-block structure with unscreened windows. The furnishings consisted of only two double-decker bunks and an electric light.

About 50 feet from the house was the central utility building. Here Jack shared a flush toilet and shower with 15 other camp residents. The building also contained laundry tubs—1 for every 8 families. Although the utility room was fairly clean and the water supply adequate and safe, there were a number of things that the Harris family found troublesome. With only one room in which to eat, sleep, and cook, they were cramped for space and lacked personal privacy. Jack's wife cooked for the family, but cooking facilities were not provided. The kerosene burner they brought and an outside water tap comprised the kitchen arrangements.

The family was grateful for the religious services that were held in camp every Sunday, and they enjoyed the weekly evening movies. But they had great difficulty getting medical care the last time the younger child came down with a virus infection. Nor was there anyone to look after the child, since Mrs. Harris worked alongside her husband and older son.

Jack Harris, as a seasoned migratory worker, had no difficulty obtaining housing. The crew he traveled with had worked for the same grower for several years and had made specific work and housing arrangements through a local public employment office long before its arrival.

Although there was still much to complain about, Jack could recall when workers were assigned to any empty shack available—whatever its condition, and when growers thought very little about migratory workers' quarters and did not consider them to be their responsibility.

In another truck, destined for another camp, rode Juan Gomez. Juan's family was larger than Jack Harris'; he had a wife, 2 grown sons, and 2 little ones. A local crew leader in Brownsville, Tex., had persuaded Juan and three other families that they would do better by leaving Texas in December rather than to wait until May to make their usual northern migratory trek.

This was Juan's first trip to Florida, but several of his friends had worked vegetables in Dade County the previous year and had come back with favorable accounts. It was only in the last few years that any of Juan's neighbors had worked in Florida; but now more and more were going, and some were even continuing to work up along the Eastern Seaboard States.

Juan's earnings averaged about $6 a day. When they weren't kept out of the fields by bad weather, he, his wife, and the 2 older boys together earned over $100 a week. However, experience had taught them to expect freezes, heavy rain, or poor market conditions which meant no income for weeks. But perhaps this time the crops would be good, the weather favorable, the work steady, and the family income enough to tide them over the year.

The Housing Problem

Migratory labor has been a feature of agriculture in the United States since the development of commercial farming. Two conditions sustain it. The first is a demand for large numbers of seasonal harvest hands in areas which cannot provide the necessary labor. The second is a supply of workers unable to find full employment opportunities in their home areas because of displacement by machines, changes in land tenure, lack of training and education, or other reasons. The commercial farming areas depend upon the timely arrival of agricultural nomads to protect the season's investment. The migrant in turn depends upon these outside jobs for a large part of his earnings.

Pulling up stakes, traveling great distances, and living on the road create a host of problems that most people do not have. The vehicles in which migrants travel often are unsafe. Access to community facilities is limited. Educational attainment is pitifully low. Housing and health problems are perennial. Although the arrival of migrants is eagerly awaited, communities are impatient to see them leave, as it is not easy to adapt public services to persons on the move.

Central among the migrant's problems is housing. Considered broadly to include environmental factors, such as recreation, religious services, health facilities, and child care, housing cuts across most aspects of migratory living.

Many of the living quarters for migratory labor "just happened"—an unused farmhouse, a converted toolshed, some kind of "jerry built" structure put up as the occasion required. Frequently, the migrant would improvise his own arrangements, which might be little more than his bedroll.

More and more, however, migratory-labor housing is being viewed as one of the integral costs of commercial farming. This newer approach recognizes that adequate living quarters are necessary to attract and keep a labor force that can be depended upon to bring in the crop.

Supplementing this enlightened self-interest has been an extension and better enforcement of farm-labor housing codes. One-third of the States have some regulations, although the degree of enforcement varies a good deal.

Living conditions of migratory workers are discussed all too frequently in a highly charged emotional setting. Extreme cases, rather than representative facts, are often presented. What is needed is specific information which will provide an objective basis for constructive action. Answers are needed to such questions as: Do we need additional migratory labor housing? If so, how much and what kind? How does the quality of housing measure up? Are shortcomings of a major structural nature or are they minor? What can be done to encourage adequate migratory-labor housing?

These are some of the questions that this study explores.

An inquiry into the adequacy of housing for migrants has two facets. First, is the amount of housing sufficient? Second, is the quality adequate? To answer either question, standards of measurement are necessary. But what should these standards be? Should they be set in terms of what migrants are accustomed to—or what they will accept—or the minimum conditions which will insure health and safety? This is a highly subjective area of values and judgments.

This survey has accepted as a yardstick the standards proposed by the President's Committee on Migratory Labor.[1]

The Survey Setting

Dade County, Fla.—site of the survey—is one of the Nation's major centers of winter fruit and vegetable production.

Dade County's principal crops are tomatoes, potatoes, beans, sweet corn and other vegetables, and tropical fruit. Prior to the severe cold spell in January 1956, planted acreage included some 24,000 acres of tomatoes, 10,000 acres of potatoes, 9,000 of beans, and about 2,000 each of sweet corn and other vegetables. Tropical fruit production consists mainly of avocados and mangoes. Some citrus fruit also is grown.

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[1] The President's Committee on Migratory Labor, *Suggested Language for Regulations of Agricultural Labor Camps*, 1956. See appendix C for these recommendations.

The 1954 Census of Agriculture reported about 1,500 farms in the county, containing over 50,000 acres of harvested cropland. Over half the farms were commercial, including 179 which sold products valued at $25,000 or more.

About 300 farms produced vegetables for sale in 1954. Some of these are huge enterprises with annual sales measured in millions of dollars. Commercial vegetable growing in the area requires large capital outlays which place small-scale operations at an economic disadvantage. The number of tropical fruit farms was 3 or 4 times greater than the number of vegetable farms, but many of the former are relatively small.

The trend of farm production has been sharply upward. According to the census, sweet-corn and snap-bean acreage more than doubled between 1949 and 1954. Tomato and potato acreage rose 52 and 17 percent, respectively, and avocado production quadrupled in the same period.

The upward trend is due to new acreage put under cultivation and to increased yields per acre. Acreage has been added by filling in some land bordering the Everglades and by increased utilization of high "pineland" to supplement the lower lying "gladeland" tomato fields. Higher yields have come with the introduction of new varieties of seed, intensive irrigation and fertilization, and control of plant diseases.

To meet Dade County's steadily rising farm-labor requirements, an increasing number of temporary workers from elsewhere in Florida, other States, Puerto Rico, and the British West Indies have been employed. Almost all were housed in 71 agricultural labor camps or in commercial housing facilities in several of the urban communities.

Detailed information was obtained in April 1956 from half of the camp operators, housing over 80 percent of all persons living in labor camps. This information was supplemented by interviews with 89 migrant workers in the camps. Information on migrants living in towns was obtained by interviews in 10 percent of the dwelling structures occupied by the workers in this group. Migratory workers in food processing or other industries were not included in the study.

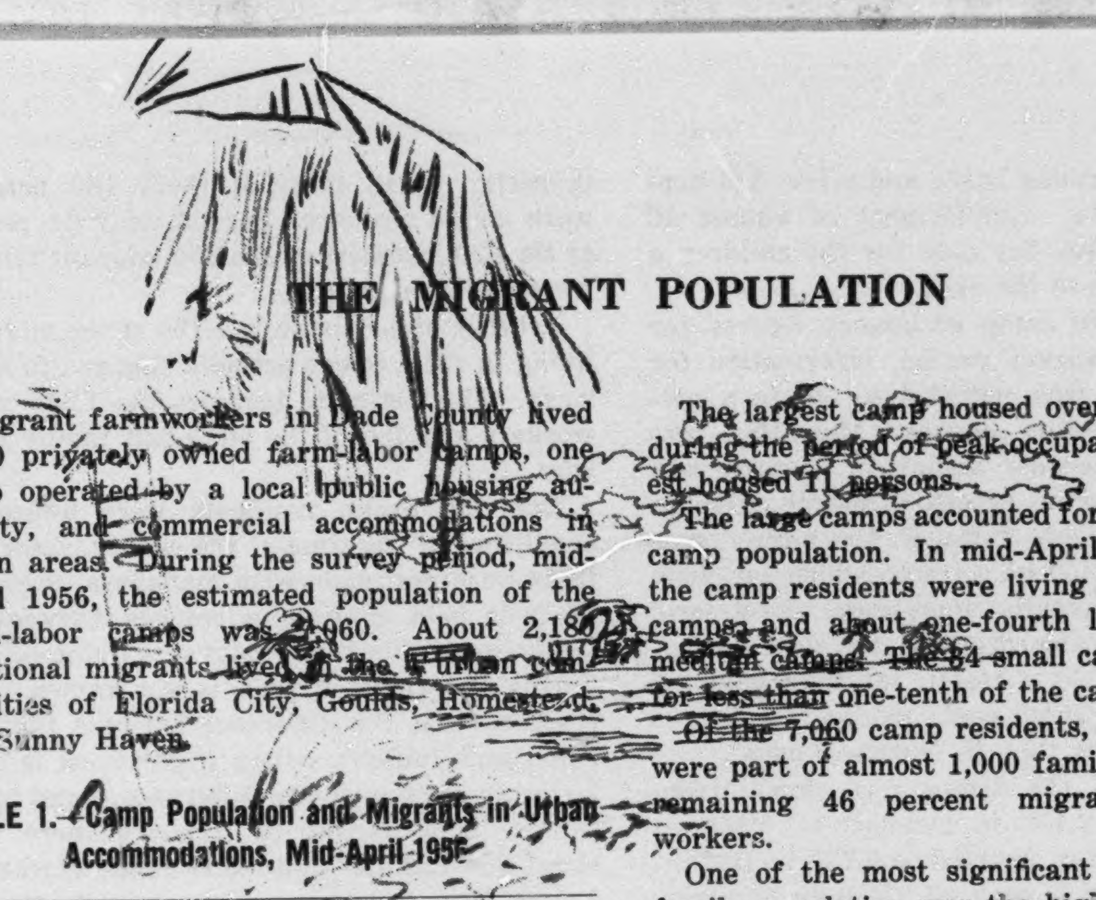
In addition to the formal interviews obtained from those in the samples, informal interviews

Packing tomatoes in the field—48 rows at a time.

were held with about 15 persons who were particularly well informed on some aspects of the migratory-labor problem.

The peak of Dade County's agricultural activity is usually reached in March. However, because of a severe freeze which struck the area in January, employment of migratory workers and demand for housing during March 1956 were below normal. On the other hand, the late harvest of crops replanted after the January freeze sustained employment at a fairly high level through mid-April, the date of the survey.

The selection of Dade County as a survey site does not imply that housing conditions are relatively more critical there than in other areas. On the contrary, its housing is probably of a higher order, reflecting the effects of the full-time assignment of a sanitarian for farm-labor camps, a specific housing improvement program, adequate regulations and ordinances, and intensive newspaper and public attention.



THE MIGRANT POPULATION

Migrant farmworkers in Dade County lived in 70 privately owned farm-labor camps, one camp operated by a local public housing authority, and commercial accommodations in urban areas. During the survey period, mid-April 1956, the estimated population of the farm-labor camps was 7,060. About 2,180 additional migrants lived in the 4 urban communities of Florida City, Goulds, Homestead, and Sunny Haven.

TABLE 1.—Camp Population and Migrants in Urban Accommodations, Mid-April 1956

	Camp population		Migrants in urban areas	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total population	7,060	100	2,180	100
Persons in family groups[1]	3,840	54	870	40
Adults	2,210	31	600	28
Men	1,150	16	(2)	(2)
Women	1,060	15	(2)	(2)
Children under 14	1,630	23	270	12
Single workers	3,220	46	1,310	60
Families	976	------	250	------

[1] Includes single workers attached to families.

[2] Information not available from survey data.

The Farm Labor Camps

For purposes of the survey, Dade County's 71 labor camps were divided into 3 groups:

(a) 11 large camps, each accommodating 200 or more persons (the public camp is included in this group);

(b) 26 medium-size camps, each accommodating from 50 to 199 persons;

(c) 34 small camps accommodating fewer than 50 persons.

The largest camp housed over 2,000 persons during the period of peak occupancy; the smallest housed 11 persons.

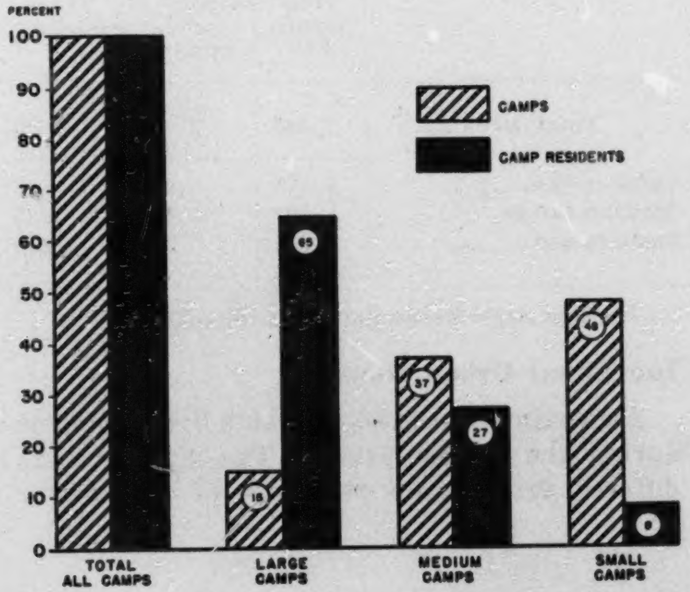
The large camps accounted for the bulk of the camp population. In mid-April, two-thirds of the camp residents were living in the 11 large camps, and about one-fourth lived in the 26 medium camps. The 34 small camps accounted for less than one-tenth of the camp population.

Of the 7,060 camp residents, more than half were part of almost 1,000 family groups. The remaining 46 percent migrated as single workers.

One of the most significant aspects of the family population was the high percentage of children. Forty-two percent of the 3,840 family members were less than 14 years old.

Virtually all of the 5,430 adult camp residents, both men and women, were in the labor force. About 94 percent were migratory farmworkers. Most of the remaining adults were regular farmhands employed by the camp oper-

CAMPS AND CAMP RESIDENTS BY SIZE OF CAMP



ator on a year-round basis, and a few had nonagricultural jobs. Employment of almost all the women makes day care for the children a serious problem in the area.

In addition to camp occupancy figures for the mid-April survey period, information for earlier months was collected to obtain a pattern for the entire season. Migration into Dade County usually begins in October and employment reaches a peak in March. During the 1955–56 season, however, the normal pattern was disrupted by a freeze which seriously damaged the tomato, snap-bean, sweet-corn, and other vegetable crops in the first half of January 1956. As a result, the high point of employment occurred early in January before the freeze, rather than in March as usual.

Occupancy of the camps rose slowly from approximately 2,440 in October to 3,560 in November. It then spurted to 6,770 in December and reached a peak of 7,850 in January. Thereafter, camp occupancy decreased gradually to about 6,940 in March, but rose again to 7,060 early in April as the late harvest of crops replanted after the freeze raised labor demand. During the January peak, there were about 1,025 families and 4,000 single workers housed in the camps, compared with the 976 families and 3,220 singles estimated during the survey period.

TABLE 2.—Estimated Farm Labor Camp Population, by Size of Camp, Mid-April 1956

	Total population	Persons in family groups [1]	Single workers
Total, all camps	7,060	3,840	3,220
Large camps	4,575	2,680	1,895
Medium camps	1,890	905	985
Small camps	595	255	340

[1] Includes single workers attached to families.

Individual Urban Housing

Approximately 2,180 migrants lived in towns during the survey period. The city dwellers differed from camp residents in two major respects. First, most of them (60 percent) were single workers. Second, only 31 percent of the 870 members of the 250 migrant families were children under 14.

All told, approximately 1,790 of the migrants living in the 4 towns actually engaged in farmwork. This estimate includes the 1,310 single workers and 480 of the 600 adult family members.

Data on urban residents were limited to conditions at the time of the survey, since contacts were not made with managers or owners likely to have continuous records. Consequently, the exact number of migrants living in town during the January peak is not known. It is assumed that the difference between the mid-April and January urban populations is similar in proportion to the difference found in the camps. That is, during January there were about 265 families and 1,625 single workers—5 and 24 percent more, respectively, than in mid-April.

Workers' Origin

The migrants came from four groups. About one-third of the camp population in mid-April were Negroes from Georgia, Mississippi, Alabama, Arkansas, and other southeastern States. Although this labor source provided the earliest out-of-area workers employed in Dade County, it has gradually lost its predominant position as other sources of labor supply have been utilized.

Slightly more than one-third of the persons living in farm-labor camps were Spanish-Americans originating in Texas.[1] This fact is of special interest since their employment in the area goes back only a few years. More and more of these people are turning to winter work in Dade County to fill in the period when farm jobs are not available in the States north of Texas.

Puerto Ricans accounted for slightly less than one-fifth of the camp residents. They have been employed in southeast Florida since World

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[1] The term "Spanish-American" will be used in this report to denote migrants of Mexican descent who originate in Texas. The term does not include Puerto Ricans, who are treated as a separate category.

War II, and some of them participate in the eastern seaboard migratory pattern.[2]

British West Indians were about one-eighth of the total. These workers have supplemented the area's domestic farm-labor force under special contract arrangements between growers and the British West Indies Governments since 1943.

The family composition of these four groups differed sharply. Most of the Spanish-Americans (82 percent) were in family groups, and almost 40 percent were children under 14. The American Negro population also consisted largely of family groups. Two-thirds were family members and about one-fourth were children under 14.

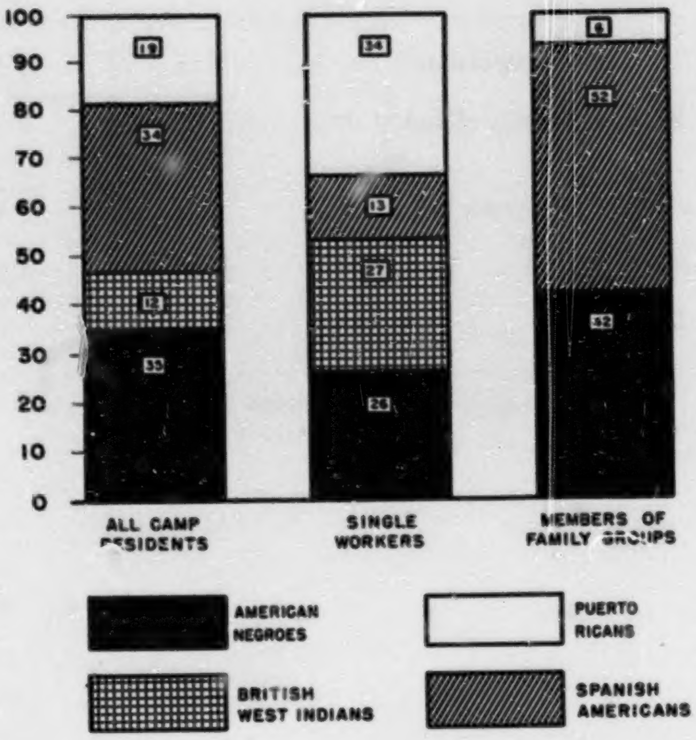
In contrast, 83 percent of all the Puerto Ricans in farm-labor camps were traveling without families, and all of the British West Indians brought into the United States are required to be employed as single workers.

Of the 976 families housed in camps during the survey period, slightly over one-half were Spanish-American, and 43 percent were Negro. Only 6 percent of the families were of Puerto Rican origin. Similarly, most of the children (56 percent) in the farm-labor camps were Spanish-American. Thirty-eight percent of the children were Negro, and 6 percent were Puerto Rican.

Puerto Ricans accounted for over one-third of the single workers housed in camps in mid-April. British West Indian and American Negro single workers were each slightly more than one-fourth of the total, while only 13 percent were Spanish-American.

Although workers of different origin sometimes shared one camp, they were rarely housed in the same structures. The bulk of the Spanish-American group was housed in large camps.

ORIGIN OF THE FARM LABOR CAMP POPULATION



Only 12 percent of these people lived in medium camps, and none in small camps. The British West Indians also were concentrated in the large camps, with one-third in medium camps and none in the smallest camps.

Camps accommodating fewer than 50 persons housed only American Negroes and Puerto Ricans. Fifty-six percent of the camp-dwelling Puerto Ricans lived in large camps, 21 percent in medium camps, and 23 percent in small camps. The corresponding figures for American Negroes were 46 percent, 42 percent, and 12 percent.

Data on origin of migrants individually housed in urban areas are not so complete as those for the camps. However, it is clear that most of the migrant families in Florida City, Goulds, Homestead, and Sunny Haven were Negro, supplemented by smaller numbers of Spanish-American and Puerto Rican family groups. Single migrants housed in the urban areas were Negroes and Puerto Ricans.

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[2] For detailed information about Puerto Rican farmworkers on the mainland, see "Puerto Rican Farm Workers in the Middle Atlantic States," 1954, and "Puerto Rican Farm Workers in Florida," 1953, U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Employment Security. For a description of the eastern seaboard migratory pattern see "Migratory Farm Labor on the Eastern Seaboard" in The Labor Market and Employment Security, May 1953, p. 8, U. S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Employment Security.

TABLE 3.—Estimated Population of Labor Camps by Origin of Worker, Mid-April 1956

	Total	American Negroes	Puerto Ricans	Spanish-Americans	British West Indians
Total population	7,060	2,455	1,340	2,410	855
Persons in family groups [1]	3,840	1,630	225	1,985	0
Adults	2,210	1,005	130	1,075	0
Children under 14	1,630	625	95	910	0
Single workers	3,220	825	1,115	425	855
Families	976	422	61	493	0

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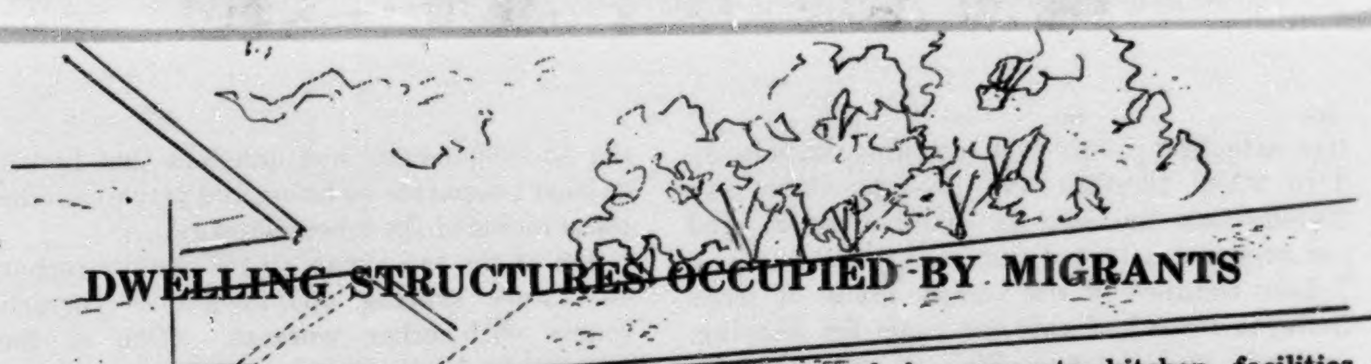
[1] Includes single workers attached to families.



DWELLING STRUCTURES OCCUPIED BY MIGRANTS

Most Dade County growers view the provision of housing for their migrant work force as one of the regular costs of operating their farms. Very few consider the camps as separate profitmaking enterprises or attempt to defray their housing expenses by charging rent. Naturally, the growers try to hold their housing costs, like other farm expenses, at a level consistent with operating needs.

The tendency to accommodate the largest number of workers at the lowest possible cost has contributed to housing problems. Living arrangements are commonly limited to the barest essentials. Quarters are often overcrowded. Most migrant families are assigned no more than one room. Family-type dwelling units are frequently used to house single workers, making it especially difficult for migrant families to find a place to live.

The accommodations of migrants living in towns were also often inadequate. The need to pay rent limits most urban dwellers to crowded, deficient quarters.

Most Common Structures

Most common camp structures were tents, duplexes, and barracks. During the survey period, approximately 40 percent of the families in camps occupied tents with wooden sides set on platforms. These families, however, were concentrated in only a few of the larger camps. Most of the labor camps provided duplex structures consisting of two attached family-type dwelling units. One-third of the camp families lived in this type of accommodation. Another 10 percent were accommodated in detached family dwellings, and a slightly smaller number lived in buildings identified as barracks. The remaining 5 percent occupied dwelling structures intended for more than 2 families.

Most of the family dwelling units in these buildings consisted of only one room, which was used for sleeping, cooking, and eating. Of the estimated 976 families housed in farm-labor camps at the time of the survey, 626 occupied 1-room units. Another 13 had 1 sleeping room supplemented by separate kitchen facilities shared with other occupants. Only 337, or one-third of the families, had 2 or more rooms. In this category were 252 with 2 rooms, 76 with 3 rooms, and 9 with 4 or more rooms.

The most common type of structure used for housing single workers in camps was the partitioned-type barrack—a barrack divided into individual rooms, each housing several workers. Approximately 1,300 of the 3,220 singles living in camps during mid-April occupied such quarters. Another 600 occupied open-type barracks consisting of 1 common sleeping room. Roughly 300 lived in platform tents furnished by a very few of the larger camps.

Migrant families face serious competition from single workers for the available family-type accommodations in Dade County. More than 1,000 singles were found to be occupying family-type dwelling structures. Of this number, almost 500 lived in detached family-type dwellings, somewhat fewer than 400 occupied duplex family-type structures, and about 170 occupied structures containing more than 2 family-type units.

Camp operators questioned about the use of family-type dwellings for single workers explained that it was more economical to house single workers than families in such accommodations, as families often include children and nonworking adults.

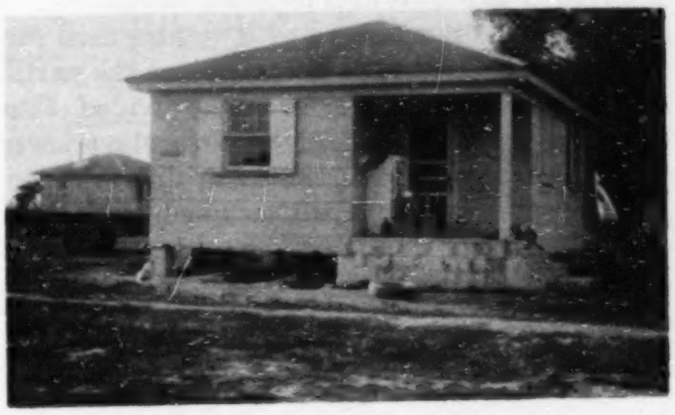
Urban Accommodations

Urban accommodations were usually furnished rooms or trailers. Migrants living in urban communities generally rented rooms in private dwellings or roominghouses. Some had their own trailers, and a small number who used the area as their home base owned their homes.

Of the 13 families interviewed in towns, 2 owned their homes. These 2 families used Dade County as a home base for migrations to other farm areas when jobs were not available locally. Six families rented rooms in private dwellings or roominghouses, and 2 rented entire detached family-type dwelling structures. Two other families had brought their own trailers into the area as living quarters, and one occupied a rented trailer.

Like families in the camps, many of those living in town had only one room for sleeping, cooking, and eating. Five of the thirteen families contacted fell into this category. Four other families had access to shared kitchens in addition to their sleeping room. Only 4 of the 13 respondents had quarters that included at least 1 separate bedroom and private kitchen; these included the 2 homeowners.

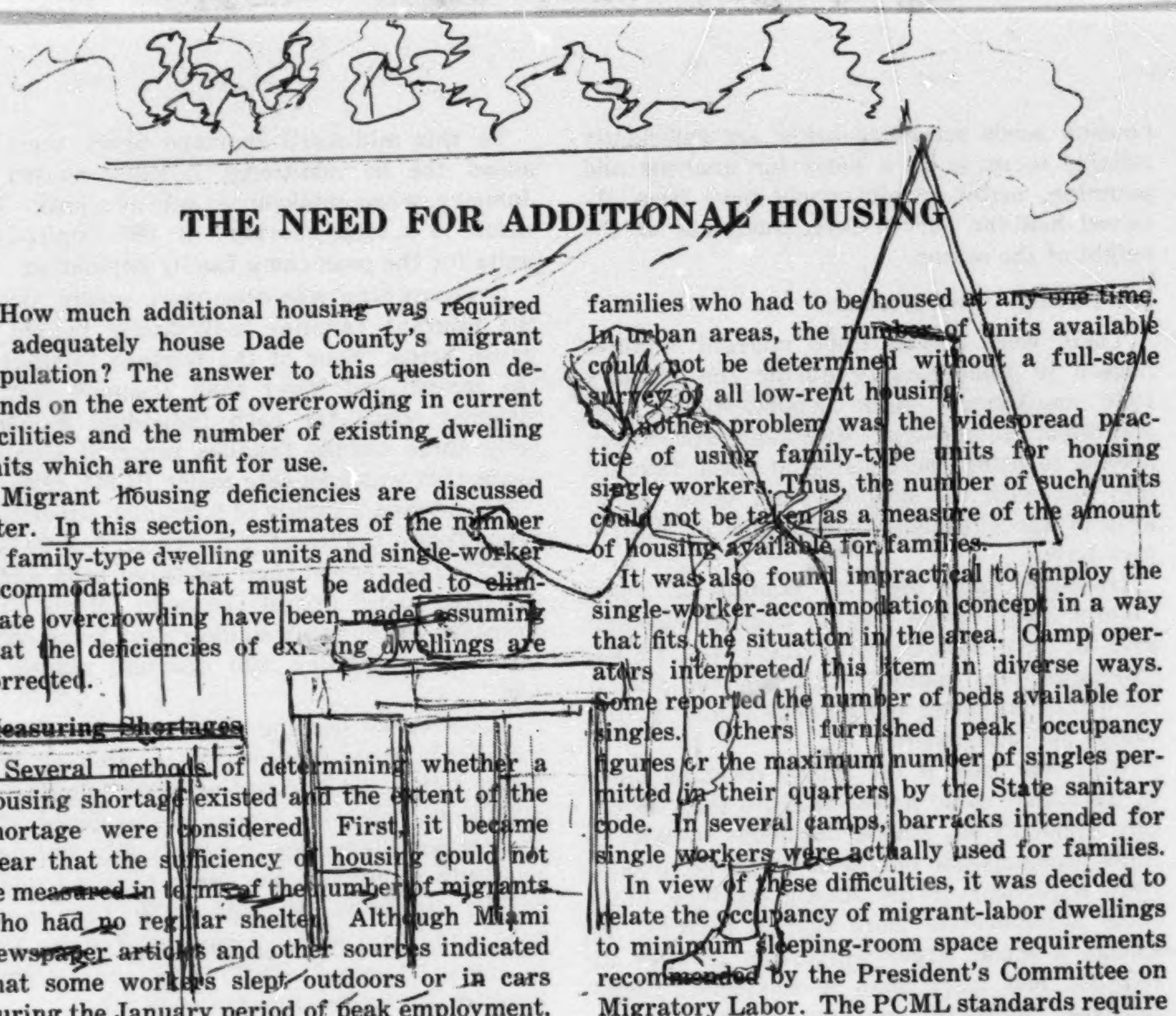
Six of the ten urban single worker respondents were sharing apartments or furnished rooms with other workers. (One of these owned his dwelling and was renting space to other migrants.) Three others occupied furnished rooms alone in rooming houses or private dwellings, while the remaining individual rented one room in a trailer.



Families are often housed in duplex structures of this type.

An open-type barrack for single workers.

Street scene—large camp.



THE NEED FOR ADDITIONAL HOUSING

How much additional housing was required to adequately house Dade County's migrant population? The answer to this question depends on the extent of overcrowding in current facilities and the number of existing dwelling units which are unfit for use.

Migrant housing deficiencies are discussed later. In this section, estimates of the number of family-type dwelling units and single-worker accommodations that must be added to eliminate overcrowding have been made assuming that the deficiencies of existing dwellings are corrected.

Measuring Shortages

Several methods of determining whether a housing shortage existed and the extent of the shortage were considered. First, it became clear that the sufficiency of housing could not be measured in terms of the number of migrants who had no regular shelter. Although Miami newspaper articles and other sources indicated that some workers slept outdoors or in cars during the January period of peak employment, their number was unknown. More important, even if the number without housing were known, it could not be assumed that the remaining migrants occupied shelters that were adequate for habitation.

Second, consideration was given to comparing the number of family-type dwelling units and single-worker accommodations available for migrants with the number of migrants who required housing. Under this procedure, the difference between the available accommodations and the number of migrants might reveal any shortage or surplus of housing. However, this method did not prove feasible. Few of the homes occupied by migrants were of the kind readily identified as family-type dwelling units. Most of the families occupied only one room. Many of the larger units occupied by families had no room that could be identified as a kitchen. The number of rooms assigned to each family in camps was often not fixed, but varied with the size of the family or the number of families who had to be housed at any one time. In urban areas, the number of units available could not be determined without a full-scale survey of all low-rent housing.

Another problem was the widespread practice of using family-type units for housing single workers. Thus, the number of such units could not be taken as a measure of the amount of housing available for families.

It was also found impractical to employ the single-worker-accommodation concept in a way that fits the situation in the area. Camp operators interpreted this item in diverse ways. Some reported the number of beds available for singles. Others furnished peak occupancy figures or the maximum number of singles permitted in their quarters by the State sanitary code. In several camps, barracks intended for single workers were actually used for families.

In view of these difficulties, it was decided to relate the occupancy of migrant-labor dwellings to minimum sleeping-room space requirements recommended by the President's Committee on Migratory Labor. The PCML standards require at least 70 square feet of space for the first occupant, and 50 square feet for each additional occupant of each sleeping room in farm-labor camps.

In the course of the survey, data were collected on the dimensions of sleeping rooms in migrant quarters. From these data, the number of occupants recommended under PCML standards was computed. This number was subtracted from the number of migrants who actually lived in the dwellings during the period of peak employment. The resulting difference constituted the number of migrants for whom additional housing was required. Plans to add or reduce migrant housing in the future are treated in a later section.

The past-peak timing of the survey made it difficult to apply this procedure with exactness. By the time of the survey, some accommodations had been vacated and others were not fully occupied, requiring adjustments to take these facts into account. Although the estimates of housing needs presented below are sufficiently reliable to serve as a basis for analysis and planning, better results would have been obtained had the survey been conducted at the height of the season.

300 Family Units Needed

There were almost 1,300 migrant families housed in Dade County during the January 1956 employment peak. Approximately 300 additional family-type dwelling units were needed to bring the housing of these families into line with the sleeping-room space standards of the President's Committee on Migratory Labor.

Dwelling units used by families in Dade County labor camps had an average sleeping area of 194 square feet. Under the PCML standards, this space is sufficient for only 3 occupants, although the average family in the camps had 4 members.

Well over half of the family dwelling units in the camps could house no more than 2 persons under PCML standards; about 85 percent could accommodate only 4 or fewer occupants. Only 6 percent of the family dwelling units could accommodate more than 6 persons, although a much larger proportion of migrant families had more than 6 members. Large families, therefore, encountered the greatest difficulties in finding suitable housing.

Overcrowding was least prevalent in the smaller camps. Family-type units in camps accommodating fewer than 50 persons had an average of 214 square feet of sleeping space, compared with 191 in larger camps; yet families residing in the small camps tended to have fewer members.

At the time of the survey, the 3,840 family members living in labor camps had quarters which should have accommodated no more than 2,840 persons under PCML sleeping-area criteria. Additional housing was, therefore, necessary for about 1,000 people, forming approximately 250 families. An estimated 120 of these families might have been housed in family-type dwellings which were vacant during the survey period, if proper arrangements could have been worked out among the camp operators involved. For the remaining 130 families, however, provision of new housing was required.

To this mid-April shortage figure must be added the 50 additional families housed in January, when employment was at a peak. The result is a total shortage of 180 family-type units for the peak camp family population.

Overcrowding was even more severe among the migrant families individually housed in urban areas. Four of the thirteen families in the sample had fewer than 7 square feet of sleeping space for each individual member. Only three sample families reported sleeping space that was adequate under PCML criteria.

In one case, a family of 9 Spanish-Americans from Texas was found in a 1-room, 6- x 10-foot shack. The family slept on three beds and a mattress under one of the beds. Meals were prepared in the same single room. Some other interviewed families had quarters almost as bad.

The average sleeping-room space per family member in urban areas was 29 square feet. This figure falls to 24 square feet when families residing in their own homes are excluded. On the average, therefore, urban family members had only about half the space required under PCML standards. To come up to these standards, additional housing was required for 130, or approximately one-half of the families living in cities during the January peak.

Within the scope of the survey, it could not be determined whether there were any vacant low-rent family-type dwelling units in urban areas which might have been used for housing the surplus families. However, the substantial overcrowding observed indicates that the number of additional dwellings available to migrants in the towns was probably insignificant.

Combining the estimated shortage of family-type housing in the camps (180) with that of the urban areas (130) results in a total shortage figure of about 300.

It should be noted that this estimate of family housing shortage based on sleeping-room space may be an understatement. The figures cited above for sleeping area per occupant are unduly large because they include the cooking and eating space used by families who occupied only one room. They also would be reduced if the data permitted exclusion of the dwellings of year-round camp residents from the computation. The year-round residents tended to occupy the largest dwellings, leaving the migrants in the more cramped quarters. The shortage of space is also underestimated to the extent that families who had no shelter at all during the peak occupancy period are omitted.

One-Room Family Dwellings

In addition to sleeping-room space requirements, another minimum standard recommended by the President's Committee on Migratory Labor is applicable to the measurement of housing shortage. This standard requires a separate room for cooking and eating when the occupants of a dwelling unit prepare their own food. To meet this requirement in Dade County, substantial additions to existing facilities would be necessary, over and above the 300 units needed to provide sufficient sleeping area.

As noted earlier, 626 of the estimated 976 families housed in farm-labor camps at the time of the survey occupied only 1 room. Many urban residents were housed in similar fashion. As virtually all of these families prepared their own meals in their individual quarters, they were in need of additional rooms to meet PCML standards.

How much additional housing would be required to provide each family with separate rooms for cooking and sleeping? It is not feasible to make an exact estimate, because the methods which would be adopted by camp operators cannot be predicted. One alternative would be to combine existing 1-room units into 2-room dwellings. This is facilitated by the absence of fixed kitchen equipment in most units. The resulting reduction in the number of families accommodated might be made up by constructing new dwellings. Some camp operators might choose to put up barracks for single workers previously housed in family-type dwellings, and turn the vacated dwellings over for family use. Others might turn 1-room units over to single workers who use central mess facilities, and utilize barracks space thus vacated to create more 2-room units for families. Still other operators may meet PCML standards by retaining one-room units as family sleeping quarters and building a central kitchen for family use. Some 1-room units may be large enough to permit conversion into 2-room units merely by erecting a center partition.

Although no precise numerical estimate is practical, it is clear that a substantial increase in housing facilities would be required to eliminate one-room units. This increment would be in addition to the estimated 300 units needed to provide sufficient sleeping-room space.

Single Worker Accommodations

Like migrant families, migrant single workers in Dade County lived in overcrowded quarters. To come up to the sleeping-space standards of the President's Committee on Migratory Labor, approximately 850 additional single-worker accommodations were needed for the estimated 5,630 single workers present during the January 1956 employment peak.

Four-fifths of the camps which housed single workers in barracks or tents during their peak occupancy periods provided less sleeping space than recommended by the PCML. Similarly, almost half of the camps housing single workers in family-type units during their periods of highest occupancy fell below PCML space requirements. As late as the mid-April survey date, singles were overcrowded in 2 out of every 5 labor camps in which they were housed.

Over 40 percent of the single workers housed in Dade County's labor camps during the period of peak employment had no more than 30 square feet of sleeping area. About one-third had between 31 and 50 square feet. These figures are substantially below the 50-foot minimum recommended by the PCML.

Like migrant families, single workers were least crowded in small camps. Practically all singles residing in small camps had over 30 square feet of sleeping-room space, whereas over one-half of the singles in medium camps and over 40 percent of those in large camps had 30 or fewer square feet.

Single workers individually housed in urban areas also suffered from crowded living conditions. Seventy percent of the single respondents in the urban sample had less sleeping-room space than required under PCML standards. On the average they had roughly four-fifths of the minimum space recommended. The smallest area reported for singles was 14 square feet.

TABLE 4.—Percentage Distribution of Single Workers in Camps, by Sleeping Area During Peak Occupancy

	Total, all workers	Sleeping-room area per worker (square feet)					
		0-20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61 or more
	Percent	*Percent*	*Percent*	*Percent*	*Percent*	*Percent*	*Percent*
Total, all single workers	100	11	33	26	12	8	10
In large camps	100	16	28	22	10	15	9
In medium camps	100	9	54	18	11	0	8
In small camps	100	0	0	56	21	5	18

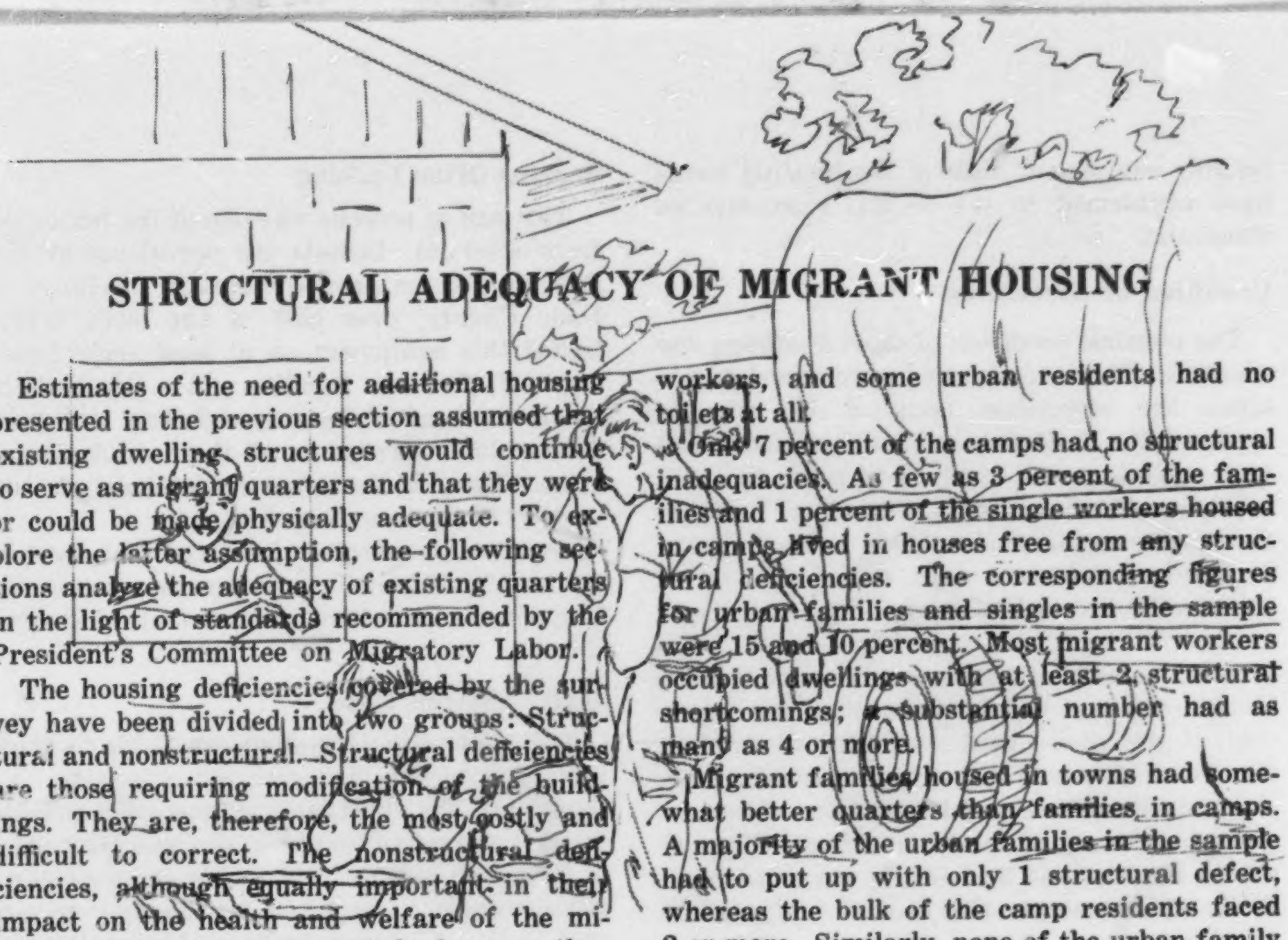
To determine the number of additional single-worker accommodations needed in Dade County during January 1956, the maximum number of occupants recommended under PCML standards was first computed for camp structures which housed single workers. This allowable occupancy figure of 3,470 was subtracted from the peak number of single workers who actually occupied the structures—4,000. The resulting difference, 530, represents the estimated number of single workers residing in camps for whom additional housing was required.

To the camp-shortage figure was added an estimate of urban-housed single workers for whom additional housing was required. Since the urban single respondents had an average of about four-fifths of the sleeping area recommended by the PCML, additional housing was necessary for one-fifth of the workers. On the cautious assumption that overcrowding during the January peak was no more severe than during mid-April, roughly 325, or 20 percent of the single workers living in cities in January, required additional housing.

Combining the additional accommodations required for both camp (530) and urban-dwelling (325) single workers, the total shortage of housing for migrant singles in Dade County at the peak of 1955–56 employment equalled about 850.

This estimate of housing shortage for single migrant workers is also conservative. A majority of the single workers prepared their own meals in their quarters. Kitchen equipment was frequently observed in the center aisle of barracks or in corners of sleeping rooms. The survey data did not permit deduction of cooking and eating space in computing the sleeping area per occupant of one-room dwelling units. If this deduction could have been made, the amount of sleeping space per resident would be reduced.

Another factor tending to understate the shortage is the assumption that overcrowding of single workers living in towns during the January peak was no more severe than during the mid-April survey period. This assumption was made in the absence of specific data about conditions in urban areas during January. Finally, as in the case of migrant family groups, an unknown number of single workers may have been without regular shelter during the peak period. These are excluded from the shortage computations.



STRUCTURAL ADEQUACY OF MIGRANT HOUSING

Estimates of the need for additional housing presented in the previous section assumed that existing dwelling structures would continue to serve as migrant quarters and that they were or could be made physically adequate. To explore the latter assumption, the following sections analyze the adequacy of existing quarters in the light of standards recommended by the President's Committee on Migratory Labor.

The housing deficiencies covered by the survey have been divided into two groups: Structural and nonstructural. Structural deficiencies are those requiring modification of the buildings. They are, therefore, the most costly and difficult to correct. The nonstructural deficiencies, although equally important in their impact on the health and welfare of the migrants, are grouped separately because they can be corrected without structural modification.

Minimum structural requirements for housing of migratory workers have been proposed in the PCML's recommended standards. Dwellings occupied by migrants should, at the very least, be structurally sound and in good repair, contain windows or their equivalent in each room, have some means of lighting each room, and have window and door screens. The housing should also have sanitary water supply and sewage disposal systems and adequate toilet, bathing, and laundry facilities.

In these respects, quarters for migrants in Dade County are believed to be better than those in most other areas where the workers are employed. In most cases, dwelling structures were sound and in good repair, equipped with windows, and had lights in each room. Virtually all accommodations had adequate water-supply and sewage-disposal systems.

However, the housing of most migrants fell short of some minimum structural requirements. The most common failings were the absence of screens and the lack of sufficient bathing and laundry facilities. Toilet facilities were also deficient for a significant number of workers, and some urban residents had no toilets at all.

Only 7 percent of the camps had no structural inadequacies. As few as 3 percent of the families and 1 percent of the single workers housed in camps lived in houses free from any structural deficiencies. The corresponding figures for urban families and singles in the sample were 15 and 10 percent. Most migrant workers occupied dwellings with at least 2 structural shortcomings; a substantial number had as many as 4 or more.

Migrant families housed in towns had somewhat better quarters than families in camps. A majority of the urban families in the sample had to put up with only 1 structural defect, whereas the bulk of the camp residents faced 2 or more. Similarly, none of the urban family respondents reported more than 3 structural deficiencies, while many of the camp families had 4 or more.

TABLE 5.—Camps, Camp Population, and Migrants in Urban Areas, by Number of Structural Inadequacies, Mid-April 1956

	Total	Number of structural inadequacies			
		0	1	2–3	4 or more
	Percent	*Percent*	*Percent*	*Percent*	*Percent*
Farm labor camps	100	7	23	50	20
Families in camps	100	3	16	74	7
Single workers in camps	100	1	17	69	13
Families in urban housing	100	15	54	31	0
Single workers in urban housing	100	10	20	60	10

Although some of the migrant dwellings in the county were unfit for use until their deficiencies were cleared up, in very few instances were the structures beyond repair. With the addition of screens, toilets, laundry tubs, and bathing equipment, most of the housing would have conformed to the PCML recommended standards.

Condition of Structures

The physical condition of most dwellings was adequate. The interviewers were asked to observe the structures occupied by migrant workers for indications of dilapidation and poor maintenance. Such evidences included holes, open cracks, loose, rotted, or missing material, sagging floors, holes in roof, shaky or unsafe porches or steps, dirt floors, makeshift walls, and lack of proper foundation.

For the most part, the houses were found to be of sound structure and in good repair. However, 8 percent of the families and 3 percent of the single workers in camps lived in houses which were rated as unsound and poorly maintained. These dwellings were found in about one-fourth of the labor camps. Three of the 13 families and 2 of the 10 single workers in the urban sample also occupied dilapidated housing.

Windows and Lights

Almost all dwellings used by migrants in Dade County contained at least one window in each habitable room. Several of the camp operators contacted during the survey complained that the occupants of their camps often broke windowpanes, making the windows a costly maintenance item. In at least one camp, wooden shutters were substituted for window panes.

Artificial lighting was also generally satisfactory. Almost all of the labor camps provided electric lights in all habitable rooms. Two camps provided fuel lamps instead of electricity. Only six camps did not provide lights for some of their residents. In all, 6 percent of the families living in camps were not provided with lights, and an additional 6 percent did not get lights in all rooms of their dwellings. Although all camp-dwelling singles had lights provided to them, 4 percent lived in quarters lacking lights in some rooms.

All of the individually housed urban respondents reported that they had been furnished lights for each room.

Screens Often Lacking

The lack of screens was one of the major defects observed. Despite the prevalence of flies and mosquitoes around migrant dwellings in Dade County, over half of the labor camps lacked this equipment on at least some dwellings. Half of the families and a third of the single workers in the camps during mid-April did not have screens on all their windows and doors. Many of the urban respondents also reported the absence of screens.

Some camp operators indicated that they refrained from providing screens because of the frequency with which their tenants destroyed them.

Water Systems Good

The water-supply systems available to Dade County's workers are generally adequate. Although all the farm-labor camps used private water systems, in virtually all cases they were of the pressure type. Only a few camp dwelling units were still serviced by handpumps set over wells. All camps reported Health Department approval of their water supplies.

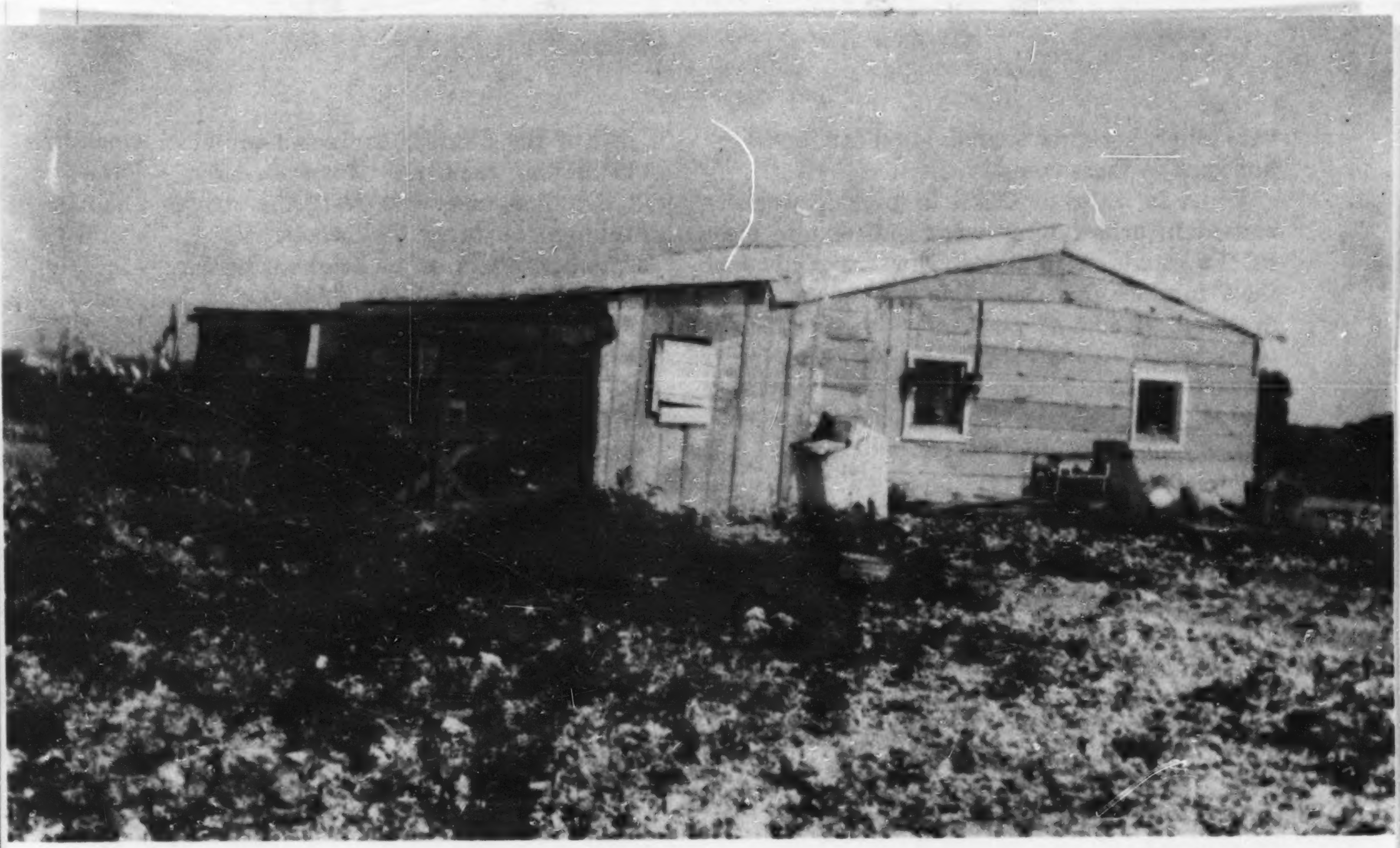
In a large majority of the camps, the dwelling structures were not provided with inside water taps. Typically, several units shared an outside water tap. However, in almost all camps, no dwelling was further than 100 feet from its source of water.

Most migrants living in urban areas also had pressure water systems. A majority had inside water taps, although often not within their own rooms.

Very few of the workers had running hot water in their homes. Although about a third of the camps had some kind of central hot-water system, they were usually limited to central washroom facilities. Urban respondents were somewhat better off in this respect; roughly one-half of them indicated the availability of running hot water.

Toilets

Like the water supply available to migrants in Dade County, the sewage-disposal systems were generally satisfactory. Virtually all of the labor camps were equipped with flush toilets connected to septic tanks. All camps had Health Department approval or were completing changes necessary for such approval.



Some migrants lived in wooden shacks like this one.

Similarly, all urban respondents had flush toilets, with the exception of two single workers who had no regular toilet facilities.

In practically all of the camps, toilet facilities were located centrally and were shared. Camp operators believed that modern plumbing equipment could be provided most economically by central facilities. Typically, the toilets were placed in a separate building which also contained a shower room. Often laundry tubs were attached to the inside or outside of the same building. Variations of this arrangement included toilet rooms attached to barracks or other camp structures.

Only about 100 family-type dwelling units in 5 camps had private toilets. Over half of these, including the small number of privies still in use, were located outside of the dwelling structures served.

In almost all camps, the central toilet facilities were located within a reasonable distance from the dwellings, seldom exceeding the 200-foot maximum recommended by the President's Committee on Migratory Labor.

The central toilet facilities observed ranged from very clean to filthy. In general, toilet rooms were cleanest in camps which provided attendants to clean them. Such attendants were employed in all large camps and almost all medium-size camps. In more than half of the small camps, care of toilet facilities was left to the tenants.

Some camp operators complained that the migrants' lack of familiarity with flush toilets led to abuse of facilities. The need for education of the migrants in the proper use of modern plumbing devices was mentioned frequently.

In a great majority of the camps the number of toilet units was sufficient to meet tenants' needs during periods of peak occupancy. The PCML recommends that at least 1 toilet unit be provided for every 15 persons. Applying the PCML criterion in the labor camps, it was found that 64 of the 71 camps met PCML standards. Of the remaining 7 camps, 3 had 16 to 20 persons per shared toilet unit at peak, 2 had 21 to 25 persons per unit, and 2 had 26 or more. At the time of the survey, only 4 percent of the camp-dwelling families and 16 percent of the camp-dwelling single workers were housed in the 7 labor camps in which toilet facilities were insufficient during peak camp occupancy. Private toilets assigned to individual families were not used in these computations.

Toilet facilities available to migrant workers housed in urban areas were sufficient to meet PCML standards in almost all cases. Only 1 of the 7 families for which this type of data were available lived in quarters with insufficient toilet units. All of the single workers interviewed also had sufficient facilities, except, of course, the two workers with none.

A majority of the urban respondents had toilets inside their dwelling structures. In all but one instance, these toilets were partitioned off from other rooms of the house. Five respondents used toilets located in backyards or nearby houses, rather than in their own residences. Two families reported that they had to pass through the accommodations of other residents to reach the toilet.

Practically all town respondents shared their toilets with other single workers or families. Only 3 families in the sample had private toilet facilities; 2 of these were living in homes which they owned.

TABLE 6.—Proportion of Camps and Camp Residents With Structural Housing Deficiencies, Mid-April 1956

	Camps	Families	Single workers
	Percent	*Percent*	*Percent*
Lack of windows	7	2	2
No lights	8	6	0
Toilet facilities insufficient during peak camp occupancy	10	4	16
Unsound or poorly maintained dwelling structures	25	8	3
Laundry facilities inadequate for peak needs	38	78	64
Not all windows screened	56	48	34
Bathing facilities inadequate for peak needs	86	88	97

Bathing Facilities

Practically all camp residents had regular bathing facilities. Typically, a shower room with one or more showerheads was provided in a central utility building. Only 4 percent of the family-type dwelling units in the camps had private baths or showers.

All of the families contacted in urban areas had bathing facilities. However, only 5 of the 13 families had such facilities inside their dwelling structures. The others used equipment located outdoors or in neighboring houses.

Although most of the single urban respondents had inside bathing equipment, two had no baths at all. These workers paid for baths in a local barbershop.

Camp and urban bathing arrangements differed in the availability of hot water and the use of bathtubs. About one-half of the urban respondents had hot water available for bathing, but a much smaller proportion of camp residents had this convenience. Most workers living in town had bathtubs, some in combination with showers. In contrast, the camps relied almost exclusively on showers.

The President's Committee on Migratory Labor recommends that at least 1 showerhead be provided for every 8 occupants of labor camps (excluding private family-type bathing facilities). Applying the criterion to camps in Dade County, a serious lack of bathing facilities was noted. At the time of the survey, almost 90 percent of the camp-dwelling families and 97 percent of the camp-dwelling single workers were housed in camps where the number of shared showerheads was insufficient at peak occupancy. These camps constituted 86 percent of all Dade County camps.

Slightly fewer than half of the camps furnished only 1 showerhead for every 9 to 15 residents during peak occupancy. A third of the camps had from 16 to 25 persons using each showerhead, and, in 5 camps, 26 or more residents shared each shower.

In town, only 2 of the 13 family respondents and 3 of the 10 single respondents had an insufficient number of bathtubs or showers available to them, indicating that bathing facilities were generally less overcrowded than those in camps.

Laundry Facilities

Like bathing facilities, laundry arrangements were generally deficient. Ten camps provided no laundry equipment at all; another provided it for only some tenants. Where laundry facilities were available, they were almost always of the central type, usually attached to utility rooms which also housed toilet and bathing units. Fixed laundry tubs with cold water faucets were most frequently reported. One or two camps furnished portable metal tubs for the use of occupants.

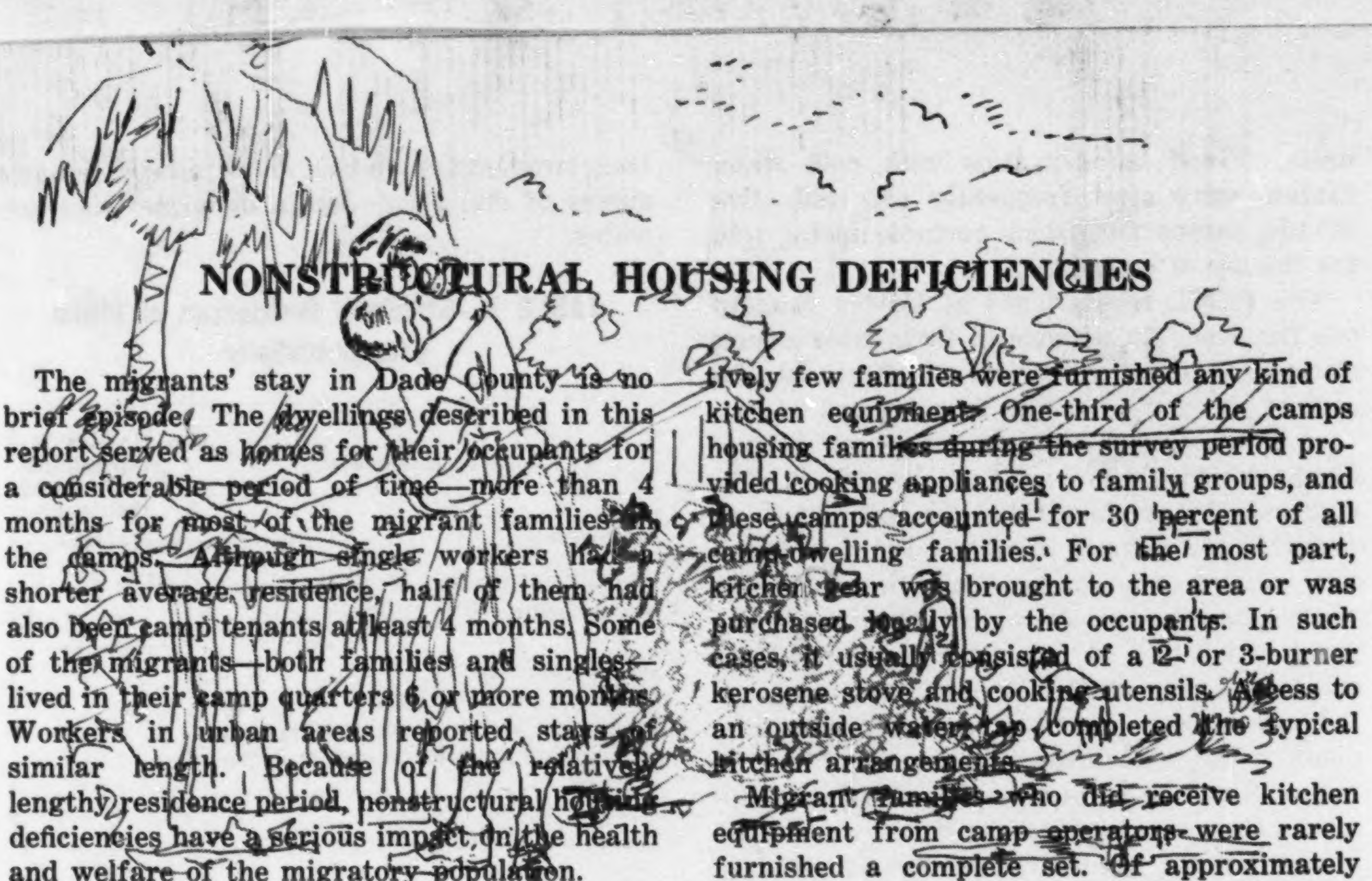
The PCML recommends at least 1 laundry tub for every 25 persons in farm-labor camps at peak occupancy. During mid-April 78 percent of the camp-dwelling families and 64 percent of the camp-dwelling singles were living in camps which did not meet this standard. The deficient camps constituted 38 percent of all camps in the county. In addition to the 15 percent which had no laundry facilities, 7 percent of the camps had an average of 26 to 35 persons per laundry tub, 11 percent had 36 to 50 per tub, and 5 percent had 51 or more.

Workers housed in town had even fewer adequate laundry facilities. Of 13 families contacted, 8 had been furnished no laundry equipment. Only the two families who owned their homes had hot water available for laundering. Only two single respondents were provided any means of doing laundry, and neither had hot water.

TABLE 7.—Structural Deficiencies of Urban Accommodations

Structural deficiency	Number of respondents reporting each deficiency
Total number of urban respondents	23
Lack of windows	1
Inadequate toilet facilities	3
Inadequate bathing facilities	5
Dwelling structures unsound or in poor repair	5
Not all windows screened	9
Inadequate laundry facilities	16

Newer housing is usually built of concrete blocks. These partitioned-type barracks house both families and single workers.



NONSTRUCTURAL HOUSING DEFICIENCIES

The migrants' stay in Dade County is no brief episode. The dwellings described in this report served as homes for their occupants for a considerable period of time—more than 4 months for most of the migrant families in the camps. Although single workers had a shorter average residence, half of them had also been camp tenants at least 4 months. Some of the migrants—both families and singles—lived in their camp quarters 6 or more months. Workers in urban areas reported stays of similar length. Because of the relatively lengthy residence period, nonstructural housing deficiencies have a serious impact on the health and welfare of the migratory population.

Nonstructural deficiencies studied in the survey included inadequate cooking and eating facilities, lack of beds and bedding, fire hazards, unsafe campgrounds, and unsanitary garbage disposal methods. A broad view of housing also required that such closely related needs as health, recreation, religious, and child-care facilities be evaluated.

To the extent that nonstructural defects render some dwellings unfit for use, estimates of the need for additional housing must be increased. Fortunately, such defects are usually easy to correct without extensive building or structural changes. Kitchen appliances, beds, bedding, fire extinguishers, and covered garbage cans may be supplied without major construction work; and such work is not necessarily required to improve campsites and to provide health, child-care, recreation, and religious facilities where needed.

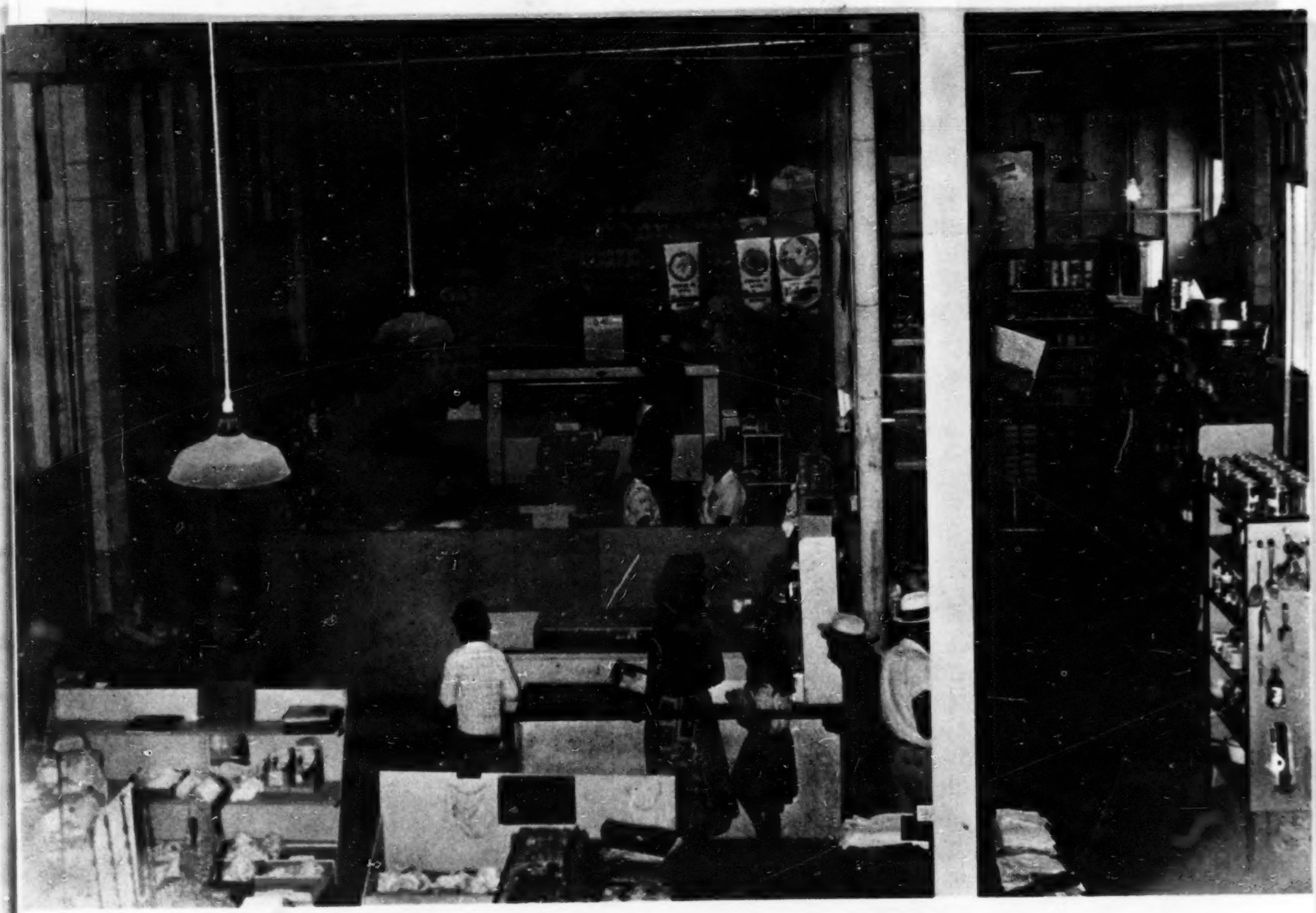
Cooking Facilities

Cooking facilities rarely were provided to camp families. Virtually all migrant families prepared food in their individual quarters, yet very few were provided with anything resembling a kitchen. Contrary to PCML recommended standards, a majority of the families in camps occupied only one room which served for sleeping, cooking, and eating purposes. This defect was compounded by the fact that relatively few families were furnished any kind of kitchen equipment. One-third of the camps housing families during the survey period provided cooking appliances to family groups, and these camps accounted for 30 percent of all camp-dwelling families. For the most part, kitchen gear was brought to the area or was purchased locally by the occupants. In such cases, it usually consisted of a 2- or 3-burner kerosene stove and cooking utensils. Access to an outside water tap completed the typical kitchen arrangements.

Migrant families who did receive kitchen equipment from camp operators were rarely furnished a complete set. Of approximately 285 migrant families found to have camp-supplied gear, only 2 were completely provided with stoves, inside taps and sinks, and refrigerating equipment. Almost half of the 285 families were only supplied with stoves, usually of the 2- of 3-burner kerosene type. Another 18 percent had only inside taps and sinks, while 35 percent had stoves and refrigerating equipment (primarily iceboxes) but no inside taps and sinks.

Kitchen facilities for urban families were somewhat better than those in camps. A majority of the families had gas stoves and inside taps and sinks. About half had refrigerating equipment. A third had running hot water—a convenience rarely available in camp kitchens. On the other hand, a much higher proportion of the families living in town had to share their kitchens with other occupants. Five of the thirteen urban respondents indicated such sharing.

Cooking equipment is also important to single migrant workers in Dade County. Almost 60 percent of the single workers living in camps at the time of the survey prepared their own meals. In contrast to the situation for families, it was the prevailing practice for camp operators to provide these single workers with at least kerosene stoves. Only a fifth of the estimated 1,900 singles who prepared their own meals had to use kerosene stoves of their own.



Commissaries like this one in a large camp are a rare convenience.

TABLE 8.—Feeding Arrangements of Camp Residents, Mid-April 1956

Feeding arrangements	Families	Single workers
Total, all residents	976	3,220
Central mess facilities	3	790
Eat out	0	420
Prepare own meals	973	1,885
Other and mixed types	0	125

On the other hand, few camps furnished other types of kitchen gear. No more than 20 percent of the workers who cooked their own food had some kind of refrigerating equipment (almost always iceboxes). Very few were issued cooking utensils, and none had inside taps or sinks.

Like camp-dwelling single workers, most singles living in town cooked for themselves. The others ate in restaurants or with neighboring families.

These inadequacies may affect health adversely over a long period. For example, inability to store perishable foods reduces the availability of milk and induces reliance on potatoes, beans, and canned foods. The absence of running hot water and sinks makes sanitary dishwashing difficult.

The absence of fixed cooking and plumbing equipment in most family dwellings may simplify the task of reducing overcrowding in the camps. It is feasible to combine 1-room dwelling units of this type into units with 2 or more rooms to conform to PCML occupancy standards. Flexible assignment of quarters, in fact, already is practiced in some of the camps where rooms serve both as kitchens and sleeping quarters. In these camps, the number of rooms assigned to each family varies with the number of family members.

TABLE 9.—Kitchen Equipment Furnished to Camp Residents Who Prepare Own Meals

Kitchen equipment furnished	Families	Single workers
Total, all residents preparing own meals	973	1,885
Stoves, inside taps and sinks, and refrigerating equipment	2	0
Stoves and refrigerating equipment only	100	350
Inside taps and sinks only	51	0
Stoves only	133	1,140
None	687	395

Central Mess Facilities

Nine large- and medium-sized camps provided central mess facilities, but only to single workers. These facilities were used to feed about one-fourth of all the single workers living in camps.

In all cases, the facilities for storing, preparing, and serving food were much more adequate than those available to individuals. For example, all central kitchens had mechanical refrigerators. Kitchen equipment, utensils, and food storage space were uniformly rated as clean by the interviewers. In all but one camp, kitchens and dining rooms were also clean. All mess structures had screened windows and doors, although two were not entirely screened.

Relatively good care of central kitchens and dining rooms was made possible by the employment of regular mess personnel. All facilities had full-time workers, ranging from 1 to 7 in number. These workers were supplemented by as many as four part-time employees in some camps.

All camps reported that the seating capacities of their dining rooms were sufficient to accommodate, at any one time, at least half the number of workers served daily during the survey period. In some camps, the reported seating capacity even exceeded the workers served. During peak occupancy, however, the number of seats was sufficient for only one-third of the workers served in several of the camps.

A central messhall for single workers.

Bedding

The furnishings of sleeping rooms in many camp family accommodations were not in accord with PCML recommendations for provision of beds and mattresses. Twelve percent of the families living in camps at the time of the survey were not furnished any beds, and 18 percent received no bedding. These families slept on whatever equipment they brought with them.

The families who did receive bedding rarely had a full set. Some 70 percent had only cotton mattresses, 25 percent had mattresses and blankets, and the remainder had mattresses, blankets, and sheets.

TABLE 10.—Beds and Bedding Furnished to Camp Residents, Mid-April 1956

Equipment furnished by camps	Families	Single workers
	Percent	*Percent*
Total, all workers	100	100
Beds furnished:		
Single beds	6	29
Double beds	19	(1)
Double-deck beds	59	59
Mixed types	4	10
None	12	2
Total, all workers	100	100
Bedding furnished:		
Cotton mattresses only	59	20
Cotton mattresses and blankets	19	66
Cotton mattresses, blankets, and sheets	4	9
None	18	5

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[1] Less than 0.5 percent.

Unlike families, single workers housed in camps were almost always provided with beds, usually double-deckers. In addition, almost all of them received some kind of bedding. Two-thirds received cotton mattresses and blankets; about 10 percent were also issued sheets. One-fifth of the singles received cotton mattresses only.

Many families individually housed in urban areas were not provided sufficient sleeping equipment. Four of the thirteen families interviewed did not have enough beds to accommodate all their members, but all single workers reported sufficient beds.

Garbage Disposal

Garbage disposal posed problems. The PCML recommends the provision of cans with tightly fitted covers for garbage and other refuse, and collection of accumulated wastes at least three times a week. These standards were not met in many camps.

Garbage and other refuse were generally deposited in large drums located near the dwelling structures. In three-fifths of the camps, containing over 80 percent of the families and 60 percent of the single workers during the survey period, garbage receptacles were not covered, creating a breeding ground for insects and other pests.

In most camps, the garbage and other refuse were carted off at least once every 2 days, but 17 camps removed the accumulation less frequently. In 13 camps, the garbage was removed 1 day each week. Spilling over of garbage from overfilled cans was often observed.

In virtually all cases, final disposal of garbage was handled in a sanitary manner approved by the County Health Department and conforming to PCML standards. Of the 65 camps for which information is available, 33 brought their refuse to private or county dumps, 13 were covered by public pickup services, 3 used incinerators, and 16 disposed of garbage and other refuse in some type of landfill.

Garbage disposal in urban areas where migrants lived was no problem, since public pickup services were available.

Fire Hazards

Fire hazards were observed in 14 percent of the camps. In addition, 2 of every 5 camps did not have fire-extinguishing equipment within 100 feet of each building, as recommended by the President's Committee on Migratory Labor.

On the basis of the interviewers' observation, one-third of the campsites were rated as dirty. Standing water, indicating poor drainage, was noted in nine of the camps. Several others were considered hazardous because of their proximity to highways or their location in mosquito-infested areas.

Health and Welfare

The inquiry into health, recreation, child-care, and religious facilities was in terms of the availability of such services within the confines of the camps. Some camp occupants were able to meet their needs in nearby urban communities. On the other hand, a substantial number of camps were located far from towns. In these instances, the absence of facilities inside the camps was a hardship for the tenants.

Only five large camps of the sample, accommodating about one-third of all camp residents, had some health-care facilities. Four of the camps were visited every other day by a doctor and a nurse who examined persons presenting themselves for medical help. The fifth camp maintained a nurse on a full-time basis. Four of the five camps provided dispensary rooms. Workers of the five camps who required addi-

TABLE 11.—Proportion of Farm Labor Camps With Nonstructural Deficiencies

Deficiency	Proportion of camps
Fire hazards	14
Fire extinguishing equipment not within 100 feet of dwellings	42
Garbage receptacles uncovered	61
Campsite not properly drained	13
Campsite dirty	30
Unsafe conditions on campgrounds	4

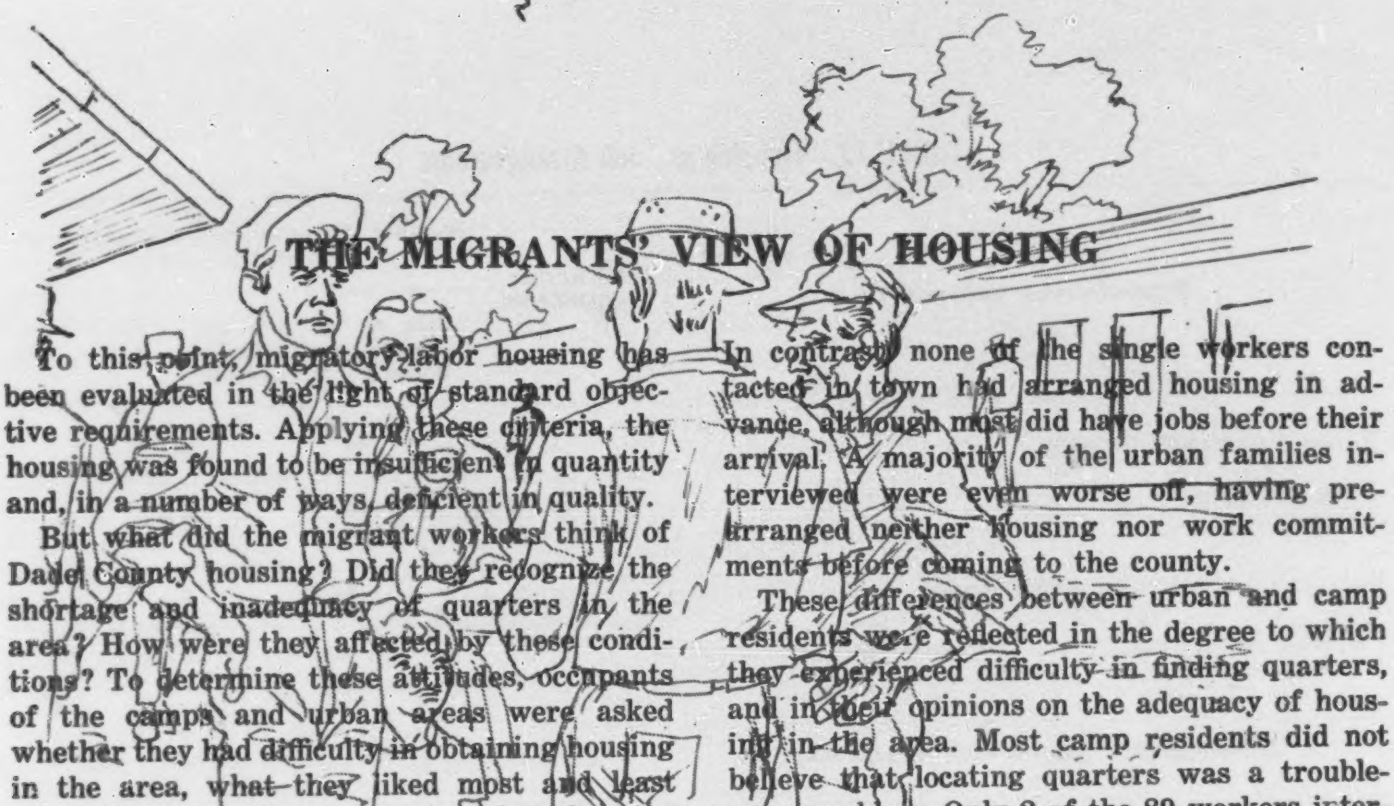
tional attention were transported to doctors' offices.

The same five camps were the only ones providing recreation facilities. These included recreation halls for occasional dances and movies, sports grounds, and equipment for sports and indoor games. In one of the camps, a local minister conducted weekly English classes for Spanish-speaking workers.

Only two of the large camps in the sample, accounting for one-fifth of the camp population, provided child day-care facilities. In one, a nurse also supervised activities of small children. In the other, a local minister conducted a kindergarten.

The seriousness of the scarcity of child-care arrangements is underscored by the fact that the average camp family included two children; yet in almost all cases the adult women were employed.

Six of the large camps and seven of the medium camps in the sample had some arrangements for religious services on their premises. For the most part, these consisted of periodic visits by ministers or priests to conduct services in one of the camp buildings or outdoors.



THE MIGRANTS' VIEW OF HOUSING

To this point, migratory labor housing has been evaluated in the light of standard objective requirements. Applying these criteria, the housing was found to be insufficient in quantity and, in a number of ways, deficient in quality.

But what did the migrant workers think of Dade County housing? Did they recognize the shortage and inadequacy of quarters in the area? How were they affected by these conditions? To determine these attitudes, occupants of the camps and urban areas were asked whether they had difficulty in obtaining housing in the area, what they liked most and least about their dwellings, and what their housing preferences were.

Most migrants were aware that their housing in Dade County was superior to accommodations in many other areas. Many commented favorably on various aspects of the dwellings. When asked to describe their quarters as good, fair, or bad, only 15 percent of the interviewed workers chose the last adjective.

However, the migrants were also aware of the deficiencies of the dwellings. Those who had not arranged quarters before entering Dade County had difficulty in finding housing. Few of the workers were able to obtain the kind of housing they preferred. Many were able to pinpoint specific items that deserved criticism. Usually, their opinions were supported by the objective findings of the survey.

The "Freewheeler" Problem

"Freewheelers"—migrants who did not have jobs or housing arranged before entering Dade County—experienced difficulty in finding a place to live. Since most of the camp quarters were committed in advance of the season, these workers tended to concentrate in the urban areas where they rented individual accommodations.

The majority of the camp residents had their housing arrangements set up before arriving in the area. Of the 89 migrant workers contacted in the camps, 73 had prearranged jobs, and all but one of these included housing. In contrast, none of the single workers contacted in town had arranged housing in advance, although most did have jobs before their arrival. A majority of the urban families interviewed were even worse off, having prearranged neither housing nor work commitments before coming to the county.

These differences between urban and camp residents were reflected in the degree to which they experienced difficulty in finding quarters, and in their opinions on the adequacy of housing in the area. Most camp residents did not believe that locating quarters was a troublesome problem. Only 2 of the 89 workers interviewed in camps said they had difficulty in finding a place to live when they arrived in the area. Only 3 workers had turned down job offers because no housing was furnished, and just 1 respondent turned down a job offer because of the poor quality of the accompanying living accommodations. The bulk of the camp respondents thought that there was enough housing for migrants in Dade County.

On the other hand, about one-half of the families and one-fifth of the single workers in the urban sample indicated difficulty in finding a place to live. Two-thirds of the urban respondents thought that there was not enough housing in the area. It is the "freewheeler," drifting without guidance or commitments into the fringes of urban communities, who needs the most help with housing arrangements.

There were various ways in which preseason arrangements for jobs and housing were made. Many workers contacted growers and camp operators by mail in advance of the season. A substantial number returned to the same camp year after year or made initial contacts through relatives who had lived in the camps. In some cases the initiative for arranging jobs and housing was taken by the grower. Some growers sent representatives into labor supply areas in advance of the season to make contact with potential workers. Public employment offices arranged the movement of another substantial number of migrants, both foreign and

TABLE 12.—Housing and Job Arrangements

Type of worker and residence	All worker respondents	Number of respondents with preseason arrangements for—		
		Jobs including housing	Jobs not including housing	Neither jobs nor housing
Worker respondents in camps	89	72	1	16
With families	35	26	1	8
Single workers	54	46	0	8
Respondents in individual urban housing	[1] 20	1	9	10
With families	[1] 11	1	2	8
Single workers	[1] 9	0	7	2

[1] Excludes migrants living in their own homes.

domestic, to farms in the area. Finally, many of the migrants were organized into crews whose leaders completed housing and work arrangements.

In most cases, occupants for the camps were obtained from a combination of these sources. Only 10 percent of the camps housed migrants who were solely recruited by the grower, but a third of the camps used this method in combination with others. Crew leaders were a source of occupants for 28 percent of the camps, but none used this source exclusively. Although only one camp in the sample relied exclusively on public employment offices as a source of occupants, one-third used such offices in combination with other methods. Most camps indicated that they supplemented the above sources of workers by admitting "freewheelers" who applied for jobs and shelter at the camp gate without previous contact with the management.

Awareness of Deficiencies

Because migratory workers are accustomed to low living standards, it is sometimes thought that they are satisfied with quarters that others might consider inadequate. For example, some camp operators told the survey team that the migrants did not mind crowding, did not want flush toilets, and even preferred rowdy, loose social environments. Such attitudes on the part of growers could influence the type of housing and services provided for the migrants.

It is difficult to ascertain the opinions of the migrants on such questions. Living among strangers, migrants are reluctant to express themselves fully. This was reflected in a relatively low rate of response to some of the opinion items on the survey schedule.

As one way of gaging worker attitudes, respondents in the worker samples were asked what they liked most and what they liked least about their current accommodations. The largest number of favorable comments were reserved for well constructed quarters. A smaller number of workers commented favorably on the space and privacy they had, the availability of family-type dwelling units, the absence of rowdyism, and good supervision and policing. A significant number of single workers stressed the presence of recreation facilities and proximity to urban areas.

The least liked aspects were generally the converse of the above. Of 19 families responding to this question in the camps, 8 indicated dilapidated, inadequate quarters, and 8 criticized overcrowding, lack of privacy, and lack of accommodations suitable for family groups. Family members also mentioned inadequate toilet, bathing, cooking, and school facilities, and lack of camp supervision.

Nine of the thirty camp single workers responding to this item criticized cooking or mess arrangements. Seven cited the lack of sufficient space and privacy, and the same number noted lack of supervision and excessive noise and undesirable behavior by occupants. Several singles mentioned inadequate beds and bedding, dilapidated dwelling structures, and inadequate toilet and bathing facilities.

In urban areas, respondents mentioned poor toilet and bathing facilities, dilapidated dwellings, and inadequate space.

In addition to the physical adequacy items, the migrants stressed the need to control alcoholism, gambling, and other unwholesome social conditions in places where they lived. The matter of supervision and policing was not fully explored in the survey schedules. However, information obtained informally during the course of the survey indicated that only a few of the large camp operators offered the kind of supervision and protection mentioned by the workers.

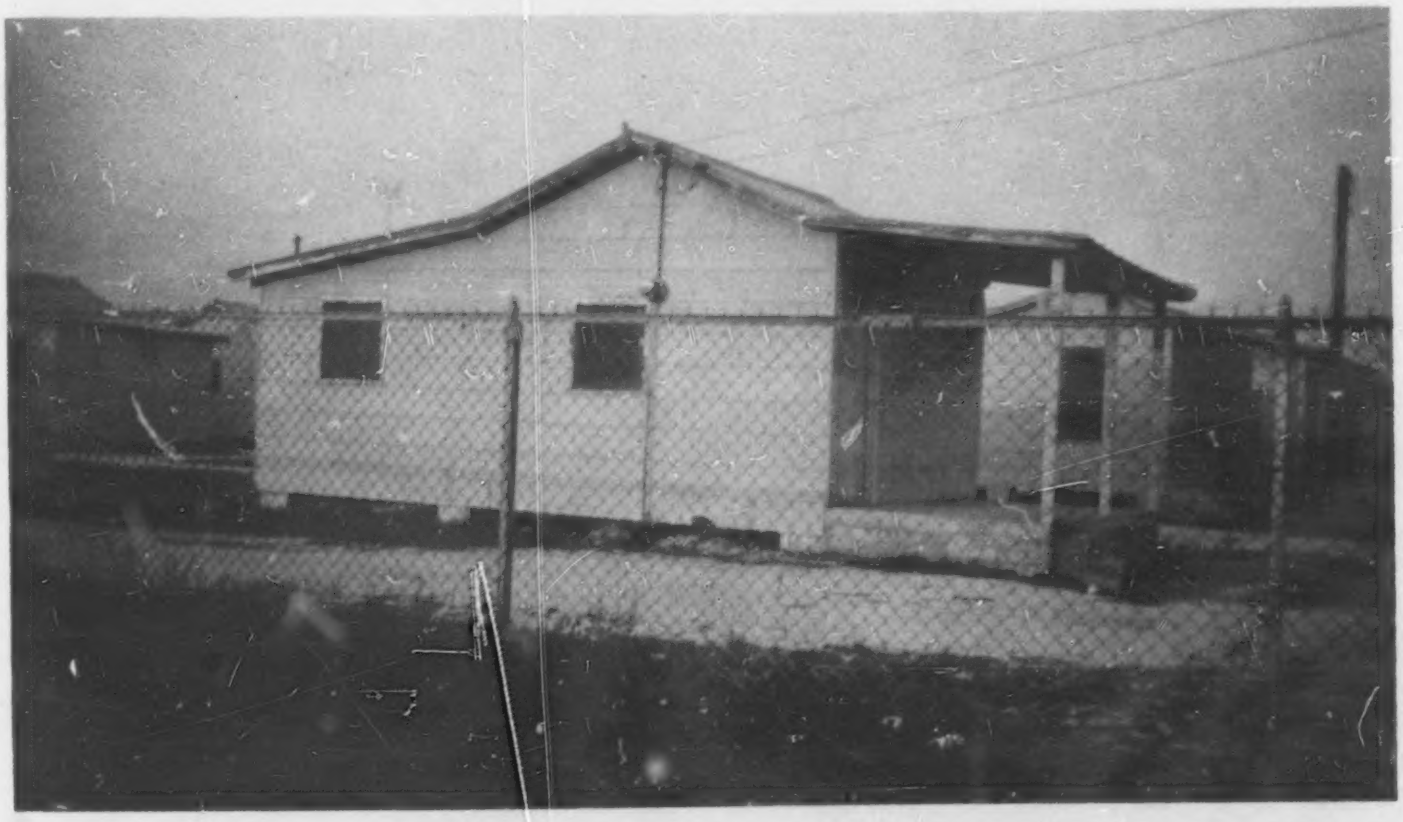
Migrants' Preferences

Most of the camp residents preferred quarters in small private camps. This became evident when workers were asked whether they preferred to live in public labor camps, large private camps, small private camps, or individual urban housing, and to indicate the reasons for their choice.

Small camps were chosen by 50 of the 89 camp respondents. Very few workers wanted to live in the Housing Authority camp or large private camps. While all of the families and most of the single workers living in small camps thought that these were the best type of accommodations, none of the families and only one-fourth of the single workers living in large camps preferred their current type of quarters.

The most common reasons for choosing small camps were more space and privacy. The survey data obtained from camp managers confirms the workers' belief that small camps were the least overcrowded. Other respondents justified the choice of small camps on the basis of friendlier surroundings and the absence of rowdyism. A few of the workers indicated that small camps had better quarters and facilities, were cleaner, and offered better opportunities for recreation.

Twelve percent of the workers interviewed in the camps preferred urban dwellings to camp dwellings. These workers believed that towns had better recreation facilities, a more wholesome social environment, more space and privacy, and better living quarters. One of the in-



Migrants prefer this kind of detached dwelling.

terviewees mentioned greater freedom in the choice of jobs as a reason for preferring town dwellings.

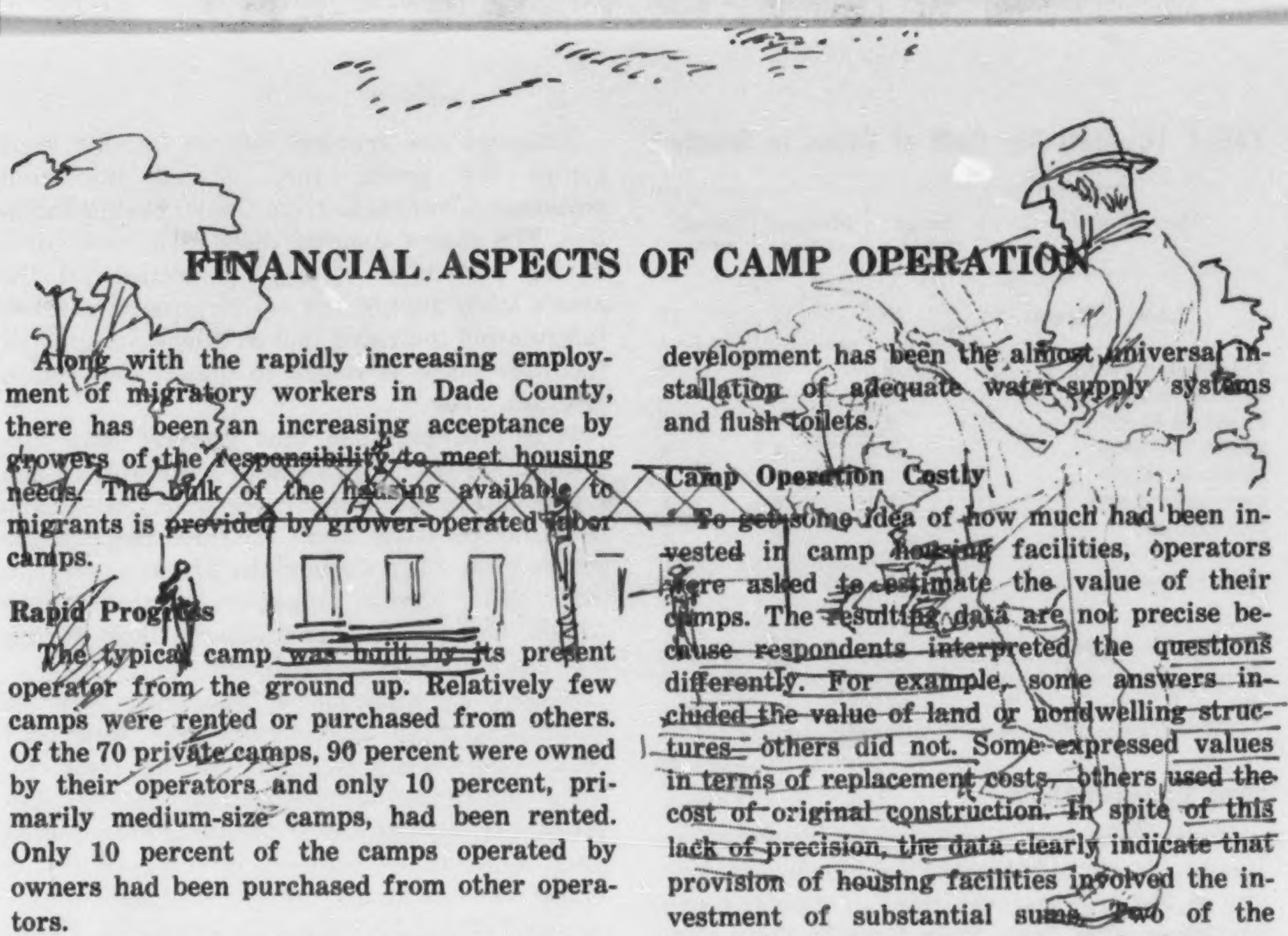
Most of the families and all but one of the single workers contacted in towns preferred urban dwellings because they afforded more space and privacy and a better social environment.

Migrant families expressed a strong preference for detached family-type dwelling structures. One-fourth of the families interviewed in camps volunteered this choice even though they were not formally questioned about the kind of structure they wanted. Five of these nine families specifically indicated that detached family-type housing was more important to them than the size of the camp. Several single workers in camps also preferred family-type units.

TABLE 13.—Housing Preferred by Workers

Respondents' location during survey period	Number of respondents	Number of respondents preferring—				
		Housing-authority camp	Large private camp	Small private camp	Urban accommodations	No preference stated [1]
Total, all respondents	112	8	10	53	31	10
Housing-authority camp	4	3	0	0	1	0
Large private camp	38	3	5	18	5	7
Medium private camp	38	2	5	25	3	3
Small private camp	9	0	0	7	2	0
Urban accommodations	23	0	0	3	20	0

[1] Most respondents with no preference as to location indicated that they were primarily interested in obtaining detached family-type dwellings.



FINANCIAL ASPECTS OF CAMP OPERATION

Along with the rapidly increasing employment of migratory workers in Dade County, there has been an increasing acceptance by growers of the responsibility to meet housing needs. The bulk of the housing available to migrants is provided by grower-operated labor camps.

Rapid Progress

The typical camp was built by its present operator from the ground up. Relatively few camps were rented or purchased from others. Of the 70 private camps, 90 percent were owned by their operators and only 10 percent, primarily medium-size camps, had been rented. Only 10 percent of the camps operated by owners had been purchased from other operators.

Progress in furnishing quarters for migratory labor has been especially rapid in recent years. Widespread acquisition of camps is largely a post-World War II development. Only one-fifth of the 63 camps which were owned by their operators had been acquired before 1945. Twenty-seven percent were acquired between 1945 and 1949, 19 percent between 1950 and 1952, and 21 percent between 1953 and 1955. The date of acquisition was not available for 14 percent of the camps.

Moreover, a majority of the growers continued to enlarge their camps after the initial acquisition. Forty of the sixty-three camps operated by their owners had been enlarged since they were built or purchased. In 18 cases, additions had been made in the past 3 years. All told, 430 family-type dwelling units were added to these camps since initial acquisition, including 295 put into service since January 1953. Similarly, 660 single-worker accommodations had been added, including 310 in the 1953–55 period.

Good progress has also been made in improving the quality of existing facilities during the last few years. The most striking recent development has been the almost universal installation of adequate water-supply systems and flush toilets.

Camp Operation Costly

To get some idea of how much had been invested in camp housing facilities, operators were asked to estimate the value of their camps. The resulting data are not precise because respondents interpreted the questions differently. For example, some answers included the value of land or nondwelling structures—others did not. Some expressed values in terms of replacement costs—others used the cost of original construction. In spite of this lack of precision, the data clearly indicate that provision of housing facilities involved the investment of substantial sums. Two of the privately owned camps were valued at approximately $200,000. The average value reported for large private camps was $117,000. The corresponding figures for medium and small camps were $33,000 and $7,600.

In all but two of the privately owned camps in the sample, construction or purchase was financed by direct outlays. The two remaining camp operators reported that they borrowed funds to acquire their facilities. This information confirms the opinion expressed by most camp operators that the profitability of farm operations is the most important factor governing progress in providing housing.

In addition to the large investment involved in acquiring the camps, most of the growers faced substantial operating costs. The annual cost of operating a camp, including maintenance, taxes, and the wages of camp employees, but excluding central feeding facilities, averaged $11,300 for large camps, $3,200 for medium camps, and $700 for small camps. The largest camps reported expenses ranging from $4,500 to $30,000. Operating costs ranged from $500 to $6,000 for medium camps, and from $100 to $2,000 in the small camps.

TABLE 14.—Operating Costs of Camps in Sample [1]

Operating cost	Large camps [2]	Medium camps	Small camps
Total, all camps	10	13	11
$15,000 and over	2	0	0
$10,000 to $14,999	0	0	0
$7,500 to $9,999	2	0	0
$5,000 to $7,499	2	1	0
$2,500 to $4,999	1	3	0
Less than $2,500	0	6	8
Not reported	3	3	3
Average operating cost	$11,300	$3,200	$700

[1] Based on 1955 experience. Includes maintenance, taxes, and wages, but excludes cost of providing food, if any.

[2] Excludes the public-housing-authority camp.

Rent Charges Rare

None of the camps operated by growers was run as a separate profitmaking enterprise. Very few of the growers even tried to recover camp operating costs from their tenants. Only 8 of the 35 camps in the sample charged rent. None of them reported a profit and only two covered their operating costs. Not even the two privately operated camps that occasionally housed workers for other growers required rentals.

In the few cases where rents were charged, the average weekly rate per family was $3.75. Weekly rentals for single workers ranged from $1 to $4, with an average of $2.88.

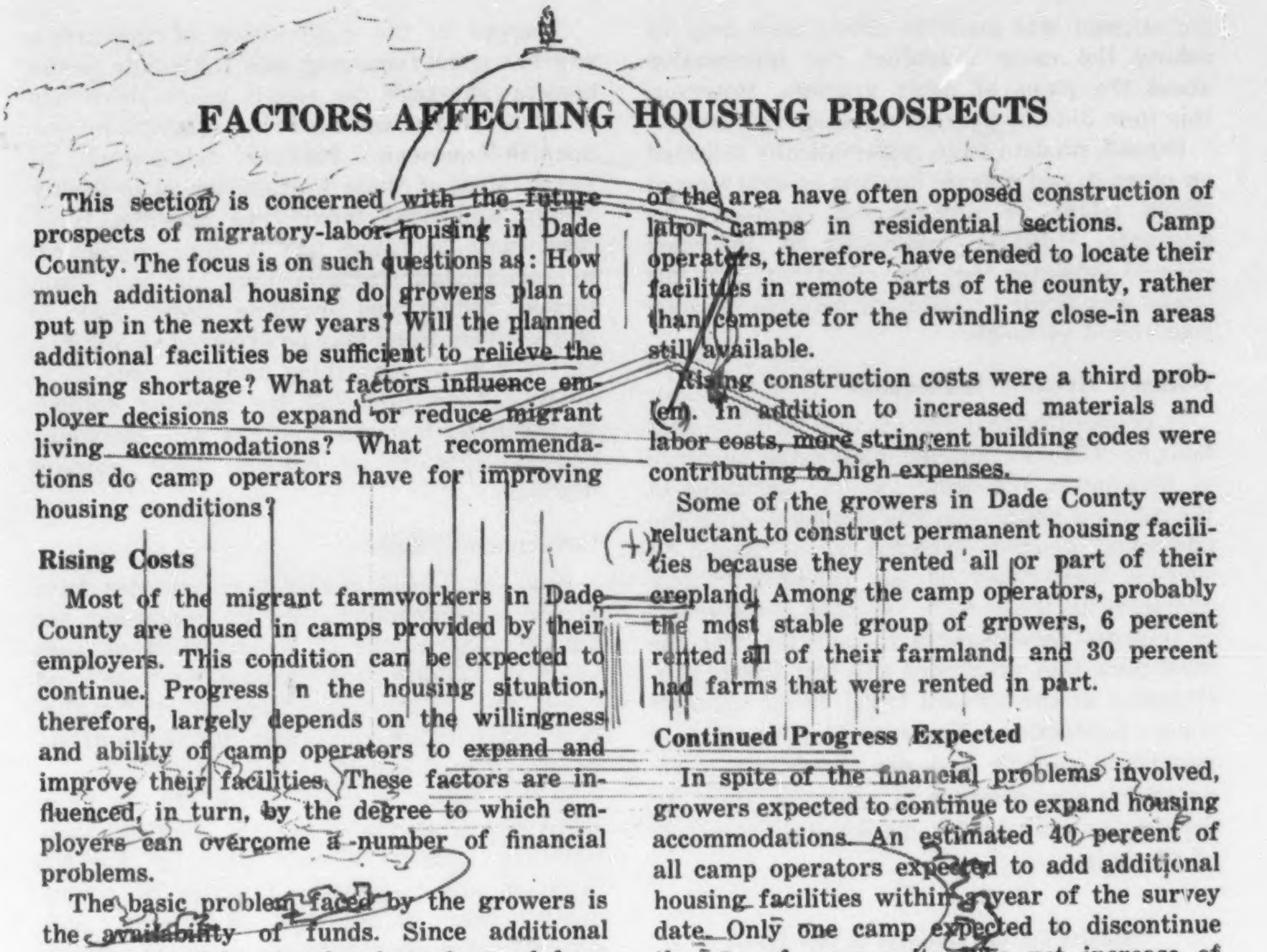
All of the seven sample camps that provided central mess facilities charged for their food. The weekly charge ranged from $10 to $12 per person, with an average of $10.78 per week. All of the seven camps reported that they no more than "broke even" on their food operations. Rent or food fees were usually deducted from the workers' wages.

Although the growers did not operate their camps for profit, they gained important economic advantages from their housing facilities. The camps assured them of a work force during periods of strong competition for the area's labor supply. All of the camp operators interviewed indicated that provision of housing facilities made it easier to obtain and retain migrant labor.

It is also probable that growers who furnished free housing in camps were able to pay somewhat lower wage rates than those who recruited in urban areas. Various respondents pointed out that workers in urban areas can more easily change employers to seek higher wages. This might be particularly likely during the period of peak employment.

Wage data collected in the survey refer to mid-April, when employment was well past peak. The weekly earnings of the camp respondents ranged from $26 to $56.25, with $30 (or $6 per day) the most frequently mentioned wage. The family members interviewed in the camps were estimated to have average weekly earnings of $31.52 when fully employed. Earnings of single workers in the camps averaged $33.12 per week. The data collected on earnings of workers living in town are much less precise because only one-third of the interviewees furnished usable information. However, most of the respondents earned $35 per week or more.

Higher earnings received by some urban residents did not provide them with a net economic advantage. All of the workers living in urban communities, with the exception of those who owned their own homes, had to pay rent. Rent for families ranged from $3 to $9.25 per week with an average of $6.55. Single workers paid from $3 to $8 per week with an average of $4.81. These rent payments more than offset any differences between the wages of migrants in camps and those in urban dwellings.



FACTORS AFFECTING HOUSING PROSPECTS

This section is concerned with the future prospects of migratory-labor housing in Dade County. The focus is on such questions as: How much additional housing do growers plan to put up in the next few years? Will the planned additional facilities be sufficient to relieve the housing shortage? What factors influence employer decisions to expand or reduce migrant living accommodations? What recommendations do camp operators have for improving housing conditions?

Rising Costs

Most of the migrant farmworkers in Dade County are housed in camps provided by their employers. This condition can be expected to continue. Progress in the housing situation, therefore, largely depends on the willingness and ability of camp operators to expand and improve their facilities. These factors are influenced, in turn, by the degree to which employers can overcome a number of financial problems.

The basic problem faced by the growers is the availability of funds. Since additional grower-owned housing has been financed from the income of the farm enterprises, the profitability of farming operations has been the largest single factor influencing expansion of facilities. For example, a number of camp operators stated that crop damage inflicted by frost in January 1956 caused them to postpone plans for adding housing. The absence or insignificance of rental charges increase reliance on farm profits for meeting camp costs.

A second problem indicated by many growers was the reduced availability and rising cost of land on which quarters for migrants can be located. This problem is chiefly due to a sharp increase in demand for land in Dade County's farming areas as sites for suburban dwellings to accommodate the expanding population of Miami.

The difficulty of obtaining suitable locations also has been increased by zoning restrictions. At county zoning hearings, permanent residents of the area have often opposed construction of labor camps in residential sections. Camp operators, therefore, have tended to locate their facilities in remote parts of the county, rather than compete for the dwindling close-in areas still available.

Rising construction costs were a third problem. In addition to increased materials and labor costs, more stringent building codes were contributing to high expenses.

Some of the growers in Dade County were reluctant to construct permanent housing facilities because they rented all or part of their cropland. Among the camp operators, probably the most stable group of growers, 6 percent rented all of their farmland, and 30 percent had farms that were rented in part.

Continued Progress Expected

In spite of the financial problems involved, growers expected to continue to expand housing accommodations. An estimated 40 percent of all camp operators expected to add additional housing facilities within a year of the survey date. Only one camp expected to discontinue the use of some units. The net increase of accommodations over the year was expected to approximate 145 family-type dwelling units and 265 single-worker accommodations.

More than one-third of the operators expected to add to their migrant quarters in subsequent years. None of the respondents had long-range plans for reducing their accommodations, although there were several cases where consideration was being given to sale or transfer of camps which might reduce the number of available housing units.

Continuing the past pattern, almost all the operators expected to finance expansion plans by direct outlay from farm income.

Two gaps in the data on planned additions of housing should be noted. First, interviews were held only with growers who operated camps. Consequently, no information is available on whether growers who currently do not provide housing plan to do so in the future.

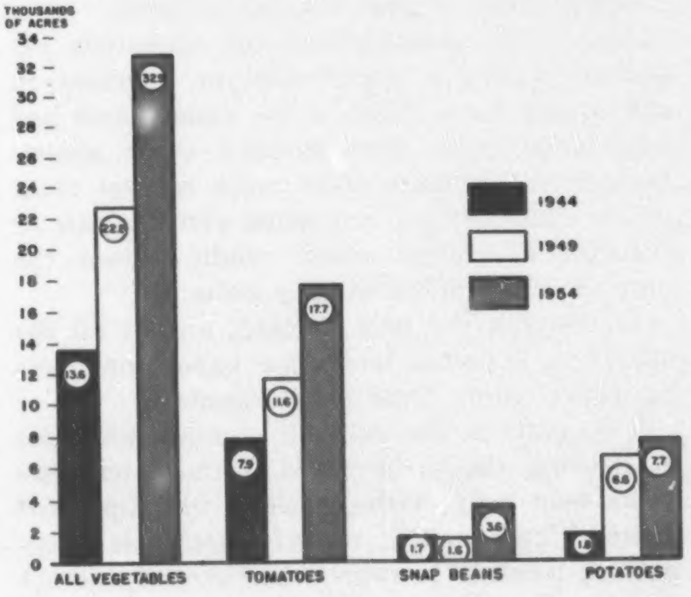
An attempt was made to obtain such data by asking the camp operators for information about the plans of other growers. However, this item did not provide satisfactory results.

Second, no data were systematically collected on plans to add private housing in urban areas which might be suitable for occupancy by migrants. However, comments by informed persons indicated that new construction in the towns was limited to housing suitable for only year-round residents.

Planned Housing Inadequate

It is doubtful that the planned expansion of housing will substantially reduce the shortage of housing in the area. Further increases in the migrant population will probably offset the additional housing expected to be placed in service. Thirty-two of the thirty-five camp operators in the sample expected employment of migrant farmworkers to increase. For the most part, they attributed this increase to continuation of the upward trend of the county's farm production. Several also mentioned population growth and the possibility of reduced job opportunities in nonagricultural industries as reasons for increased employment of migrants.

VEGETABLE ACREAGE HARVESTED IN DADE COUNTY
1944-1954



SOURCE: U. S. CENSUS OF AGRICULTURE

Changes in the composition of the area's migrant work force may also contribute to the housing shortage. In recent years there has been a sharp increase in employment of Spanish-American workers originating in Texas. Most of these workers travel in family groups and need family-type housing. However, camp operators find it more economical to accommodate single workers, and have often turned family-type dwelling units over to singles. This trend may be expected to continue as the cost of furnishing housing rises. It is possible, therefore, that the growing number of Spanish-American families will encounter greater difficulty in meeting their housing needs.

Government's Role

State and local government agencies have played an important role in improving the quantity and quality of Dade County migrant quarters. Conditions in the area illustrate what can be done by the proper application of sanitation and building rules, and the problems encountered in this field.

Labor camps accommodating 10 or more persons are regulated by the Florida State Sanitary Code. The code provides for the licensing and inspection of camps by county health officers. It also covers minimum standards for campsites, sleeping quarters, central mess facilities, water supplies, sewage and garbage disposal, and related items.

Supplementing the State sanitary code are county health regulations, also applied by the county health officers. One of these regulations, which has had a great impact on the camps, calls for the exclusive use of flush toilets in quarters occupied by migrants.

Regulations are only effective if they are enforced. In Dade County, the health department has had much success in securing compliance in the camps. A 3-year program of intensive education and enforcement was begun in 1953. The most effective measure was the assignment of a sanitarian on a full-time basis to inspect and handle compliance matters for the farm-labor camps. With the cooperation of the camp operators, flush toilets have become almost universal. Water supplies, sewage systems, and refuse disposal have been brought into line with higher standards of sanitation than previously existed. Efforts to reduce overcrowding and improve the quarters also showed results.

In contrast to the close supervision of the camps, there was very little regulation of the urban dwellings occupied by migrants. This is explained largely by the absence of regulations specifically designed for such urban units. Technically, these roominghouses, rented trailers, and backyard shacks were covered by the regular hotel and restaurant code. It is, however, unrealistic to apply the same set of standards and inspections to a hotel as to a shack in a rural community.

In addition to the health regulations, rules to insure sound construction of facilities have been issued by the county government and some of the urban communities. These rules include the minimum size and allowable building materials for labor-camp structures.

Some of the camp operators stated that sanitation, building, and zoning regulations raise the cost of furnishing housing to migrants, causing fewer housing units to be made available. They also criticized zoning restrictions which limit new camps to isolated areas, creating problems relating to recreation, education, shopping facilities, health care, policing, and religious facilities. Most of the growers, however, recognized that the various regulations had contributed to the improvement of migrant facilities.

An important contribution to improvement of the housing situation has been made by the Florida Industrial Commission. The commission follows a policy of referring workers to jobs only when adequate housing is available. Growers who use public employment office services thus have an incentive to provide decent dwellings. The policy of British West Indian officials to inspect housing offered to their nationals has also helped.

Federal Action Suggested

Some of the camp operators suggested action by the Federal Government to improve housing conditions. Three types of activity were recommended:

(1) Five respondents suggested that accelerated tax amortization be permitted for farm labor housing facilities. Although bills have been introduced in the Congress to achieve this aim, none has passed to date (August 1958).

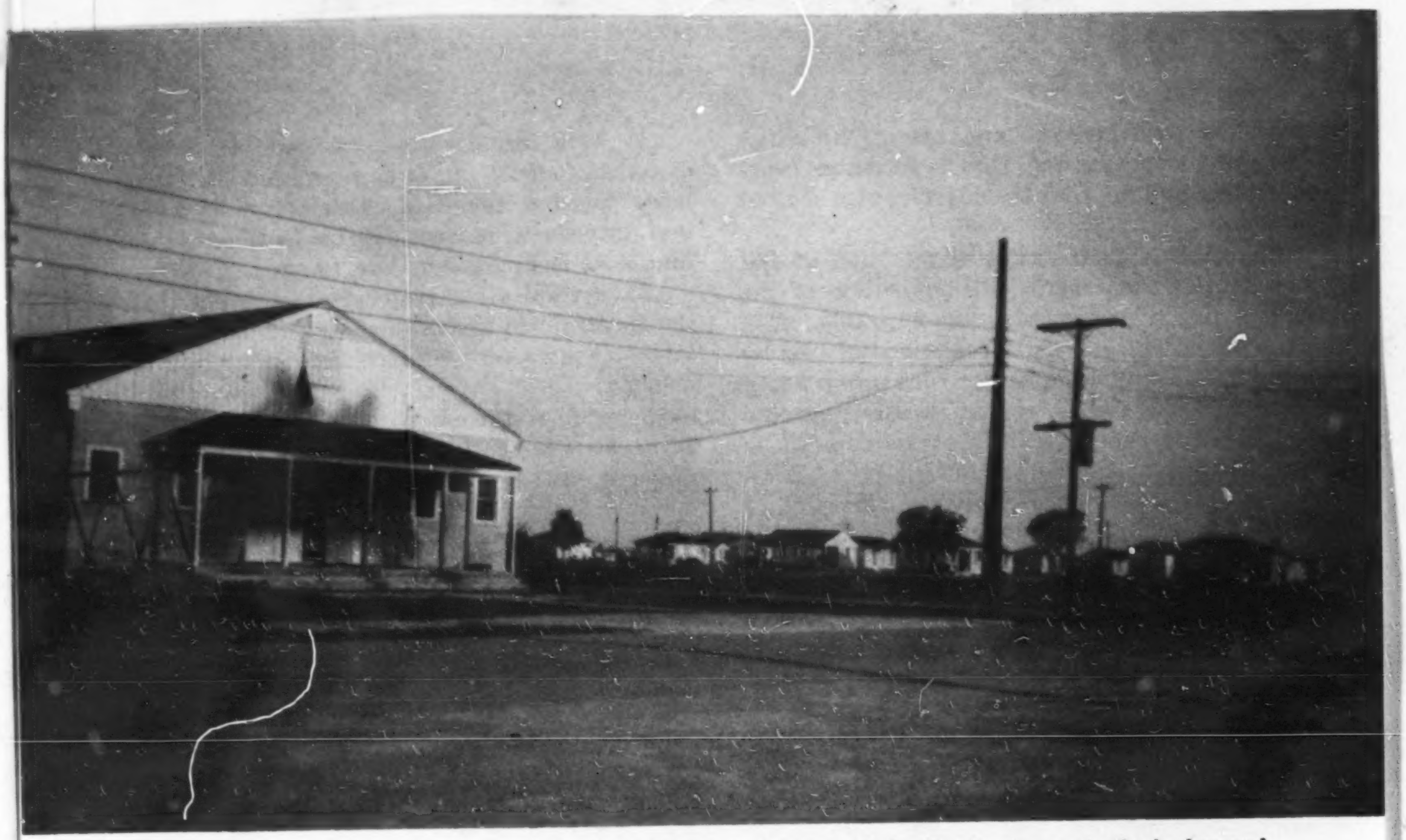
(2) Several other respondents thought that the Government should make available low-interest loans for construction of migrant housing.

(3) Five of the camp operators interviewed favored construction of additional housing financed by the Federal Government and operated by local public housing authorities. These growers believed that housing workers in public camps was more economical and involved less administrative work than private camps.

Several respondents disapproved of public camps because they lessen the control of employers over their labor supply. Workers in public camps were thought to be able to shift from employer to employer with greater ease than private camp residents. On the other hand, interest in expansion of public camp facilities may be greater than the survey data indicate. Growers who had no housing facilities of their own but who used the public camp exclusively to house their workers were not contacted in the survey. Had they been contacted, many might have recommended continued growth of public camp capacity. Because of the importance of the public camp in Dade County's housing picture, a fuller description is given below.

Public Authority Camp

Beginning in 1935, the Federal Government embarked on a program of building and operating farm-labor camps in areas of high demand for seasonal farm labor. The Department of Agriculture completed 53 permanent camps and 115 temporary camps at a total cost of approximately $12 million. They contained over 9,000 housing accommodations, consisting of cottages, apartments, shelter units, tent platforms, and trailer spaces. The cottages and apartments were equipped with individual water, laundry, toilet, and bathing facilities. The shelter units (consisting of one room each), tent platforms, and trailer spaces share facilities located in community buildings.



The housing authority camp. Administration building in foreground; family-type houses in the background.

In 1950 Congress enacted legislation to transfer the 39 farm-labor camps which were still active to the Public Housing Administration. The PHA sold the camps to local public housing agencies under a contract which required them to turn over the net income to the PHA for a period of 20 years.

The Homestead Public Housing Authority operates two camps in Dade County: the Redland labor camp, which houses food-processing workers, and the South Dade labor camp, which houses farmworkers. Only the latter camp was covered by the survey.

The South Dade labor camp contained 2 opened-type barracks, 70 duplex family-type dwelling structures—each containing two 1-room units, and twenty-eight 3-room single-family dwellings. These dwellings were supplemented by central bathing, laundry, and toilet buildings.

The camp was occupied by well over 1,000 persons, including Negro family groups and American Negro and British West Indian single workers. About 100 families were year-round residents. Most of the temporary occupants were referred to the camp by growers who did not have sufficient facilities of their own. A smaller number of occupants were "freewheelers" or members of organized crews who made housing arrangements directly with the camp management.

Families occupying dwelling units in the duplex structures paid $5 per week for 1 room and $9 for 2 rooms. Single workers were charged $2.75 for sleeping accommodations. The three-room houses originally designed for large families all were occupied by single workers at the time of the survey. Housing-authority officials indicated that rents were sufficient to cover all operating costs and to build up some reserves.

In a number of respects, living conditions in the public camps were better than those in many private camps. The dwelling structures were in good repair. Modern bathing, laundry, and toilet facilities were available. All of the housing units were equipped with iceboxes, rarely encountered in private camps. Kerosene stoves were furnished to all occupants. Recreation, religious, and child day-care facilities were present.

The most recent development affecting the status of public camps was the enactment of Public Law 1020, approved by Congress on August 7, 1956, which directed the Public Housing Administration to transfer farm-labor camps without monetary consideration to local public-housing agencies. The transferred camps are to give preference to tenants who are low-income agricultural workers. Pursuant to the law, the Florida camps passed into the hands of local housing authorities in June 1957. One of the effects of the transfer was the removal of restrictions on the use of surplus operating income for adding more accommodations.

APPENDIX A

THE SAMPLING PLAN

As a preliminary step in planning the survey design, the housing situation in Dade County was discussed with representatives of the Florida Industrial Commission who were familiar with local conditions. Data on the farm-labor camps also were obtained from the county health department. These sources indicated that most of the migratory workers were housed in 70 private labor camps and 1 public labor camp. A smaller number rented individual accommodations in nearby urban communities. Practically none of the workers were believed to reside in individual dwellings in rural areas.

This information indicated that more than one sampling plan was necessary. The plans included contact with (1) a sample of camp operators, (2) a sample of migrants living in camps, and (3) a sample of migrants living in rented town dwellings. Although the existence of individual housing arrangements in rural areas was doubted by the initial informants, a systematic check was considered worthwhile. A sampling plan was devised, therefore, for contacting workers individually housed outside of the towns. This plan provided an opportunity for testing sampling methods in open-country housing situations.

It also was decided to contact a number of persons other than camp operators and migrant workers who were sufficiently well informed about housing and labor conditions in the area to contribute to the survey data.

Camps

For purposes of sampling, the camps were stratified into large-, medium-, and small-size groups. The large camps accommodated 200 or more persons, the medium camps accommodated from 50 to 199 persons, and the small camps held fewer than 50 occupants. A list of all camps and occupancy figures came from health-department records.

Since most of the migrants were housed in the 11 large camps, all camps of this size were included in the sample. One-half of the 26 medium camps and 11 of the 34 small camps were also included in the sample. The medium and small camps contacted were selected by random methods.

All told, including the housing-authority camp, 35 of the 71 camp operators in the area were interviewed. The sample camps accounted for slightly more than four-fifths of the total camp population. It was possible to interview all the respondents in the sample. Cooperation was facilitated by making appointments in advance and using news releases to publicize the survey.

Camp Occupants

Time and staff considerations precluded the use of probability sampling methods in selecting worker respondents housed in camps. Interviewers were instructed to contact as representative a group as they could. Where a camp housed both family and single workers and workers of different origin, interviewees were to be selected from as many of these groups as possible.

The number of workers interviewed was also limited by time and cost considerations. Four interviews were made in each large camp, 3 interviews in each medium camp, and 2 in each small camp. All told, 89 workers completed usable schedules. They included 35 family members and 54 single workers.

It is possible that concentration of interviews at daytime hours, relatively uncontrolled selection of respondents by the interviewers, and the small number of contacts made in each camp limit the reliability of the camp worker data. It was not deemed worthwhile to inflate the sample figures to area totals. However, the schedules were found useful for supplementing information obtained from other sources.

Individual Urban Dwellings

The original design for sampling migrants housed in urban communities contemplated the random selection of city blocks within which all or a portion of the dwelling units would be contacted. This design was discarded when it was found that no up-to-date maps of the towns were available.

In the procedure finally adopted, members of the survey team made a detailed block-by-block examination of all areas indicated by well informed farm-labor crew leaders and representatives of the Florida Industrial Commission as possible locations of migrant residences. As the team drove through these areas, it carefully counted all the dwelling structures on its route into groups of 50. In each group of 50 dwelling structures, the last 5 were selected for inclusion in the sample. A total of 46 clusters, each consisting of 5 dwelling structures, thus constituted the sample in urban areas.

This method of sampling was found to have many advantages. Designation of the dwellings to be contacted was not very time consuming, requiring the work of 2 members of the survey team and a driver for only 2 days. The procedure insured that dwellings located on the fringe of the towns, where no readily identified blocks existed, would be included in the survey. It also left no choice in selection of contacts to the interviewers. Since each interviewer was given the exact addresses at which respondents were to be visited, there was no chance for bias in the selection of respondents. Great care was taken to include trailers and temporary structures located behind regular dwellings in counting off the groups of 50 dwelling structures required by the sampling plan.

All of the 230 dwelling structures composing the 46 clusters in the sample were contacted as often as necessary to obtain an interview. The interview was terminated promptly if no migrant farmworkers were housed in the structures. Because of time and cost considerations, only 1 worker was interviewed in each of the 23 homes found to contain migrants. Since many of the dwelling units included several migrant families and/or single workers, information for other residents had to be deduced from the replies of the one respondent interviewed in each unit. Better results would have been obtained had all single workers and a member of each migrant family housed in the sample dwelling units been interviewed.

The Open-Country

On a large map of Dade County, all rural areas were divided into a large number of segments believed to contain approximately equal populations. Three samples of segments were drawn by probability methods with the help of Department of Agriculture statisticians. Two of the samples each contained one-sixteenth of all the segments; the third had one-eighth of all the segments. The samples were so designed that they could be used with reasonable reliability singly or in combination. The use of three samples was occasioned by the fact that it was not known in advance how long it would take to cover each segment. The decision to use only one sample of segments, or a combination of samples, could be made in the field on the basis of interviewer experience.

About one-sixteenth of the segments were actually covered in the survey. Interviewers inquired at or about every dwelling unit in each segment assigned. Since virtually no migrants were found to be living in the rural areas, this aspect of the survey was discontinued.

Other Contacts

In addition to sampling camp operators and workers, it was thought desirable to talk with other persons in the area who might know about the housing situation. Such individuals might see housing conditions from different perspectives, and fill in the historical background of the current housing picture.

Approximately 15 individuals were contacted in connection with the survey. They included a health department official, two ministers, representatives of the Homestead Public Housing Authority, members of the Florida Citizens Advisory Committee on Migrant Agricultural Labor, school and social service agency officials, a local architect, and representatives of farm associations.

These individuals provided valuable information and insights into past and current labor and housing conditions. They helped the survey group to develop a frame of reference which made the survey data more meaningful.

APPENDIX B
THE QUESTIONNAIRES

The diverse phases of the survey design made it necessary to prepare several different kinds of questionnaires. In view of the experimental nature of the survey, the number of questionnaire items was somewhat larger than absolutely necessary. The testing of different approaches inevitably led to some duplication and the use of some items that may well be discarded or modified on the basis of the experience gained in Dade County.

A "primary schedule" was used to interview all camp operators in the sample. This schedule covered items that pertained to the camp as a whole. A "supplementary schedule" was used to describe each different type of dwelling structure in the camps. For example, a camp operator housing workers in tents, open barracks, and partitioned barracks completed a supplementary schedule for each of these three types of structures, in addition to the more general primary schedule.

A "worker schedule" was used in questioning all worker respondents. It covered items applicable to workers housed either in camps or individual urban dwellings. In addition, urban dwellers completed an "urban housing schedule" describing their housing facilities. For camp residents, of course, such a description was available from the supplementary schedules administered to the camp operators. Different colors distinguished the schedules as an aid to the interviewers.

APPENDIX C

REGULATIONS FOR AGRICULTURAL LABOR CAMPS

Relating to Construction, Equipment, Sanitation, Operation, and Maintenance

(Language Suggested by the President's Committee on Migratory Labor)

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  Application.
  Higher Local Regulations Prevail.
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  Permit for Operation of Camp.
  Application and Issuance of Permit.
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Site and Physical Facilities.
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  Cooking and Eating Facilities.
  Garbage and Other Refuse Storage and Collection.
  Insect and Rodent Control.
  Safety and Fire Prevention.

A. DEFINITIONS

For the purposes of these regulations:

1. **Agriculture labor camp,** hereinafter referred to as "camp," includes one or more buildings or structures, tents, trailers, or vehicles, together with the land appertaining thereto, established, operated, or used as living quarters for five or more seasonal or temporary workers engaged in agricultural activities, including related food processing.

2. **Person** means an individual or group of individuals, association, partnership, or corporation.

3. **Camp operator** means the person who has been granted a permit in accordance with these regulations to operate a camp.

4. **Shelter** means any building of one or more rooms, or tents, or trailers, used for sleeping or living quarters at a camp.

5. **Habitable room** means a room or enclosed floorspace used or intended to be used at a camp for living, sleeping, cooking, or eating purposes, excluding bathrooms. water closet compartments, laundries, pantries, foyers, or connecting corridors, closets, or storage space.

6. **Toilet facilities** mean water closets, privies, urinals, and the rooms provided for installation of these units.

7. **Refuse** means all putrescible and non-putrescible solid waste except body wastes, including garbage, rubbish, and ashes.

8. **Garbage** means all putrescible animal and vegetable wastes resulting from the handling, preparation, cooking, and consumption of food at a camp.

9. **Sanitary landfill** means the controlled dumping of refuse on land, compaction of this refuse into the smallest practicable volume, and then the covering of it daily with an appropriate amount of earth.

B. REGULATIONS; COMPLIANCE

1. Application

These regulations shall apply to all camps as defined in section A.1.

2. Higher Local Regulations Prevail

No provision in these regulations shall take precedence over a requirement in any applicable State, county, or local law or regulation, when the corresponding requirement of such law or regulation is more stringent than the provision in these regulations.

3. Responsibility of Camp Operator

The camp operator, as defined in these regulations, shall be responsible for complying with all statutory requirements and regulations issued thereunder relating to camps and with all conditions stated in the permit issued to him under part C of these regulations.

C. ADMINISTRATION

1. Notice of Construction of Camp

Each person who is planning to construct or enlarge for occupancy or use, a camp or any portion or facility thereof, or to convert a property for use or occupancy as a camp, shall give notice in writing of his intent to do so to the____________________* at least 15 days before the date of beginning such construction, enlargement or conversion. The notice shall give the name of the city, village, town, or county in which the property is located, the location of the property within that area, a brief description of the proposed construction, enlargement, or conversion, and the name and mail address of the person giving the notice and his telephone number, if any. Upon receipt of such notice, the____________________* shall send promptly to the person giving notice, copies of the State law, and regulations issued thereunder, applicable to camps.

2. Permit for Operation of Camp

Before any person shall operate a camp directly or indirectly he shall make an application for and receive a valid permit for the operation of the camp.

3. Issuance of Permit

Application for such permit shall be made to the____________________* in writing, on a form and in the manner prescribed by the said____* at least 15 days before the proposed operation of the camp. It shall show the name and address of the person requesting a permit to operate the camp, name and address of the owner of the camp, the approximate number of persons to be lodged, the approximate period during which the camp is to be operated, and such other pertinent information as the__________* shall find necessary. A separate application shall be submitted for each camp and a separate permit shall be issued annually for each such camp.

A permit shall not be transferrable or assignable. It shall expire 1 year from the date of its issuance, or upon a change of operator of the camp, or upon revocation.

In the event of an intended change of operator of a camp, the new applicant shall apply for a permit at least 5 days before the proposed change is effected.

If the____________________* finds, after investigation, that the camp or the proposed operation thereof conforms, or will conform, to the minimum standards required by these regulations, he shall issue a permit for operation of the camp on a form prescribed by him.

4. Right to Hearing, if Permit Denied

Whenever any person applying for a permit to operate a camp is denied such permit, the____________________* shall, upon applicant's request, afford him a fair hearing in accordance with rules promulgated by the______________*

5. Revocation

A permit may be revoked at any time, after notice and opportunity for fair hearing in accordance with rules promulgated by the____* if he finds that the camp for which the permit is issued is maintained, operated, or occupied in violation of law or of any regulations applicable to a camp or in violation of the conditions stated in the permit. A new permit shall not be issued until the__________* is satisfied that the camp will be operated in compliance with the law and regulations. In case of the revocation of a permit, any application for a new permit, following such revocation, shall be filed at least 5 days before the first day of the intended resumption of operation.

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*Insert title of head of agency vested with administration of these regulations.

6. Duties of Camp Operator

(a) The person to whom the permit is issued, defined in these regulations as the camp operator, shall post and keep posted such permit in a conspicuous place in the camp.

(b) The camp operator shall himself inspect daily, or provide a competent individual to inspect daily, the ground and the commonuse spaces of buildings, structures, or tents, including toilets, showers, laundry, messhall, dormitories, kitchen, or any other facilities relating to the operation of the camp, and see that each is maintained in a clean and orderly condition, and that broken screening and other elements of structure in any of the buildings are promptly repaired.

(c) The camp operator shall inform himself of the State law or local regulations relative to the reporting and control of communicable diseases and shall comply with all pertinent requirements.

(d) No person known to be infected with a disease in a communicable form or to be a carrier of such disease shall be employed in the operation or maintenance of a camp.

7. Responsibility of Occupants

Every employee and occupant of a camp shall use the sanitary and other facilities furnished for his convenience and shall comply with all applicable camp regulations which may concern or affect his conduct.

D. SITE AND PHYSICAL FACILITIES

1. Camp Area

(a) All campsites shall be well drained and free from depressions in which water may stand. Natural sinkholes, pools, swamps, or other surface collectors of water within 200 feet of the periphery of the camp shall be either drained or filled to remove the quiescent surface water except that such areas containing water not subject to such drainage or filling shall be treated with oil or other larvicide to prevent the breeding of mosquitoes during mosquito-breeding season.

(b) No camp shall be located on a site which is subject to or may cause extreme traffic or other hazard, unless acceptable safeguards are provided.

(c) No camp shall be located on the watershed of a domestic or public water supply so as to create a pollution hazard.

(d) No camp structure shall be located less than 200 feet from barns, pens, or similar quarters of livestock or poultry.

(e) No camp shall be located less than 200 feet from an establishment processing or distributing commercial food products.

(f) All campsites shall be adequate in size to permit locating of buildings so as to minimize the hazards of fire.

(g) All camps shall provide space for recreation, commensurate with size of the camp and the type of occupancy.

2. Water Supply

(a) An adequate and convenient supply of water of quality that meets the standards of the State health authority shall be available at all times in each camp for drinking, culinary, bathing, and laundry purposes.

(b) When wells or springs are used as source of the camp water supply they shall be constructed and protected as required by the State health authority.

(c) No surface or cistern water supply shall be used except under conditions approved by the State health authority.

(d) The water supply shall be capable of delivering at least 35 gallons of water per person per day to the campsite.

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*Insert title of head of agency vested with administration of these regulations.

(e) Where water is distributed under pressure a supply rate at least 2½ times the average hourly demand shall be possible and the distribution lines shall be capable of supplying water at normal operating pressure to all fixtures.

(f) Adequate facilities for providing hot water for bathing, laundering, and dishwashing purposes shall be available in all camps.

(g) In existing camps with water-pressure systems, water outlets shall be located in such manner that no shelter or habitable area is more than 100 feet distant from such an outlet. Drainage facilities shall be provided for the overflow or spillage from such outlets.

(h) In all camps hereafter constructed, water under pressure shall be supplied to all habitable buildings.

3. Excreta and Liquid Waste Disposal

(a) Facilities shall be provided and maintained in all camps for the satisfactory disposal or treatment and disposal of excreta and liquid waste.

(b) Where public sewer systems are available, all building sewers shall be connected thereto. Where public sewers are not available and conditions will permit, a subsurface seepage or other type of liquid waste disposal system shall be installed in accordance with the requirements of the State health authority.

(c) Non-water-carriage excreta disposal facilities shall be constructed as required by the State health authority.

4. Shelter

(a) Shelters in all camps shall be structurally sound and shall provide protection to the occupants against the elements. The floors of buildings used as living quarters shall be constructed of wood, asphalt, concrete, or other comparable material. Wooden floors shall be of planed tongue-and-groove lumber and in buildings without a cellar or basement shall be elevated not less than 18 inches above ground level to permit free circulation of air. The airspace below the floor shall be properly screened and shall not be used for storage purposes.

(b) All concrete or asphalt floors shall be smooth finished and the floor level shall be elevated at least 6 inches above the average ground level.

(c) In all shelters hereafter constructed or remodeled not less than 2 rooms shall be provided for each family composed of husband and wife and 1 or more children 10 years of age or over. Except in the housing of families, separate sleeping accommodations shall be provided for each sex.

(d) In all shelters hereafter constructed or remodeled each room designed or used for sleeping purposes shall have at least 400 cubic feet of airspace per person. It shall contain at least 70 square feet of floorspace for the first occupant and at least 50 square feet of floorspace for each additional occupant. In a house trailer furnished by a person other than occupant there shall be at least 20 square feet of clear floor area for each person sleeping therein.

(e) At least one-half of the floor area of each habitable room in a building, not in a tent or house trailer, shall have a minimum ceiling height of 7 feet and no floorspace shall be counted where the ceiling height is less than 5 feet.

(f) Each habitable room shall have at least one window or skylight opening directly to the out-of-doors. The minimum total window area shall be 10 percent of the floor area of such room. Whenever the only window in a room is a skylight-type window in the top of such room the total window area of such skylight shall equal at least 15 percent of total floor area of such room. This shall not apply to tents or trailers.

(g) Each habitable room in a building shall have at least one window or skylight which can be easily opened for ventilating the room. The total of openable window area in a room shall equal at least 45 percent of the minimum window area size required for that room except where there is supplied some other approved device affording adequate ventilation.

5. Means of Egress

All buildings in which people sleep or eat shall be provided with exits for use in case of fire which conform to requirements of the State fire law or regulations or standards issued by the appropriate authority.

NOTE.—If there are no State fire laws, regulations, or standards that can be applied to camps, the following provisions are suggested:

All buildings in which people sleep or eat shall be provided with at least two outside exits for use in case of fire, so located as to afford alternate means of escape. If sleeping quarters are provided above the ground floor, at least one outside exit from such quarters shall be required. Dormitory sleeping quarters, central dining rooms, and common assembly rooms shall have at least two exits. All sleeping quarters in which 10 or more individuals sleep shall have at least 2 doors opening to the outside of the building or to an interior hall.

Where flights of stairs extend beyond more than 2 occupied floors in a building there shall be a self-closing door at both the lower and upper end of each flight of stairs between 2 floors, and the construction of the stairwell shall have at least ½-hour fire resistance. Such doors shall swing in in the direction of exit travel. A landing shall be provided beyond each door opening and shall have a width and depth not less than the width of the door opening. The flights of stairs shall be enclosed within smoketight walls. The landing and floor area from any interior door through the building to an outside exit of the building, except for any required intervening door, shall be maintained free and clear of any obstruction.

6. Screening

All outside openings shall be protected during the fly season with wire fly screening of not less than 16 mesh. All screen doors shall be equipped with self-closing devices.

7. Heating

(a) When a camp is operated during a season and in a climate requiring artificial heating, all living quarters shall be provided with properly installed heating equipment of adequate capacity to maintain a temperature of at least 70° F. during the period of occupancy.

(b) A stove or other source of heat shall be installed and vented in such a manner as to avoid both a fire hazard and a dangerous concentration of fumes or gas. In a room with wooden or combustible flooring, there shall be a concrete slab, metal sheet, or other fire-resistant material on the floor under every stove, extending at least 18 inches beyond the perimeter of the base of the stove. Any wall or ceiling not having a fire-resistant surface within 24 inches of a stove or stovepipe shall be protected by a metal sheet or other fire-resistant material. Heating appliances, other than electrical, shall be provided with a stovepipe or vent connected to the appliance and discharging to the outside air or chimney. Such vent or chimney shall extend above the peak of the roof. A vented metal collar shall be installed around a stovepipe, vent, or flue in a wall, ceiling, floor, or roof through which the stovepipe, vent, or flue passes.

(c) Automatically operated heat-producing equipment shall be provided with controls to cut off the fuel supply upon the failure or interruption of flame or ignition, or whenever a predetermined safe temperature or pressure is exceeded. All steam and hot water systems shall be provided with safety devices arranged to prevent hazardous pressures and excessive temperatures.

8. Lighting

Where electric service is available each habitable room in a camp shall be provided with at least one ceiling-type light fixture and at least one separate floor- or wall-type electric convenience outlet. Other rooms in which people congregate, and water-closet compartments, privies, laundry rooms, and toilets shall contain at least one ceiling- or wall-type fixture. Electric wiring shall be installed in accordance with provisions of the National Electrical Code.

9. Toilets

(a) Approved toilet facilities adequate for the capacity of the camp shall be provided.

(b) Each toilet room shall be located so as to be accessible without any individual passing through any sleeping room. Toilet rooms shall have a window not less than 6 square feet in area opening directly to the outside area. No flush-toilet fixture nor urinal shall be located in a sleeping room.

(c) A toilet facility shall be located at least within 200 feet of the door of each sleeping room. No privy shall be closer than 50 feet to any sleeping room, dining room, messhall, or kitchen.

(d) Where the toilet facilities are shared such as in multifamily dwellings and in dormitory-type facilities separate toilet rooms shall be provided for each sex. These rooms shall be distinctly marked "for men" and "for women" by signs printed in English and in the native language of the persons occupying the camp. If the facilities for each sex are in the same building they shall be separated by solid walls or partitions extending from the floor to the roof or ceiling.

(e) Where toilet facilities are shared the number of water closets or privies provided for each sex shall be based on the maximum number of persons of that sex which the camp is designed to house at any one time, in the ration of 1 such unit to each 15 persons, with a minimum of 2 units for any shared facility. Family living accommodations containing private toilet facilities shall not be considered when establishing this number of shared toilet facilities.

(f) Urinals should be provided on the basis on 1 for each 25 men. The wall and floor space to a point of 1 foot in front of the urinal lip and 4 feet above the front and at least 1 foot to each side of the urinal shall be faced with a nonabsorbent material.

(g) Every water closet hereafter installed shall be located in a toilet room.

10. Washrooms, Bath and Laundry

(a) Approved washing, bathing, and laundry facilities adequate to the capacity of the camp shall be provided.

(b) In mutiple-family dwellings and in dormitory-type facilities, separate washrooms and bathrooms conveniently located shall be provided for each sex. Each separate facility shall be plainly designated. If the facilities for each sex are in the same building, they shall be separated by solid walls or partitions extending from the floor to the roof or ceiling. Baths provided in family living accommodations shall be partitioned off from the rest of the room. Provision shall be made for adequate dressing space adjacent to bathing facilities.

(c) In multiple-family dwellings and in dormitory-type facilities washbasins shall be provided in the ratio of 1 for every 12 persons and 1 showerhead for very 8 persons or fraction thereof. All shower and wash fixtures tions of shower rooms shall be smooth and im-der pressure.

(d) The floors of utility buildings shall be of smooth but nonskid finish, impervious to moisture and sloped to drain. Floor drains properly trapped shall be provided in all shower baths and shower rooms to remove waste water and facilitate cleaning. The walls and partitions of shower rooms shall be smooth and impervious to moisture.

(e) In multiple-family dwellings and in dormitory-type facilities 1 laundry tray or washtub or other laundry facility for every 25 occupants of the camp, or fraction thereof, shall be provided for laundry purposes and shall be convenient to all living quarters. Hot and cold water shall be provided at each laundry tray or washtub.

11. Cooking and Eating Facilities

(a) In camps where workers are permitted or required to cook in their individual quarters, a separate room shall be provided and equipped for use as a kitchen.

(b) In camps where cooking facilities are used in common, the kitchen area shall be screened. Stoves (in a ratio of 1 to 10 persons or 1 stove to 2 families) shall be provided. Provision shall be made for safe storage and refrigeration of food.

(c) In camps where there is a central mess or multifamily feeding operation the kitchen and messhall shall be constructed in accordance with the regulations of the State health authority. The size of such facilities should be in proper proportion to the capacity of the camp, and separate from the sleeping quarters. The floors, walls, ceilings, tables, and shelves of all kitchens, dining rooms, refrigerators, and food storage rooms shall be so constructed that they can always be maintained in a clean and sanitary condition. The exterior wall openings of all dining rooms, kitchens, and food-storage rooms shall be screened and rendered flytight at all times during the period that the camp is in operation. Screen doors shall be self-closing and installed to open outward from the area to be protected.

12. Garbage, and Other Refuse Disposal

(a) Provision shall be made for disposing of garbage and other refuse by incineration, grinding, burial, or incorporation in a sanitary landfill. Metal cans with tight-fitting metal coverings and 10 to 20 gallons capacity shall be provided for storage of garbage pending collection and final disposal.

E. OPERATION AND MAINTENANCE

1. Camp Area

(a) The campgrounds shall be maintained in a clean, safe, and sanitary condition, free from rubbish, debris, wastepaper, garbage, and other refuse.

(b) When the camp is to be closed for the season, all garbage, rubbish, manure, and other refuse shall be collected and so disposed of as to prevent nuisance. All campgrounds, buildings, and facilities shall be left in a clean and sanitary condition.

2. Water Supply

(a) Water supplies which may have become exposed to contamination accidentally or following repair work shall be thoroughly disinfected in accordance with State regulations before being placed in use.

(b) A water sample from the camp's supply shall be submitted for bacteriological examination to an approved laboratory prior to the initial operation of the camp and thereafter when any major repair to or alteration of the water-supply system has been made.

(c) Delivery of water to a camp in portable containers shall not be permitted after 1 year following the effective date of these standards. Where it is necessary to haul water the containers for transporting and distributing it shall have tight-fitting covers and spigots and shall be cleaned and disinfected daily. The water drawn from the containers shall have a residual chlorine content of at least 0.3 parts per million.

(d) The use of a common drinking cup is prohibited. Drinking fountains shall be of a type approved by the State health authority.

3. Shelter

(a) All living and sleeping quarters shall be maintained in a clean, sanitary condition. Floors shall be scrubbed with hot water and suitable cleansing agents as often as necessary to maintain them in a clean, sanitary condition.

(b) All shelters shall be kept in good repair.

(c) All living quarters not constructed with closet space for storage of personal effects shall be provided with lockers or other suitable storage facilities.

4. Beds and Bedding

(a) Sleeping facilities shall be provided for each worker. Such facilities shall consist of beds, cots, or bunks, complete with springs and shall include clean mattresses and mattress covers or mattress ticks filled with clean straw or other suitable material free from dust or vermin. Mattresses and mattress ticks shall be laundered or otherwise sanitized between assignment to different employees. They shall also be treated, as necessary, with an insecticide to prevent vermin infestation.

(b) All sheets, pillowcases, blankets, or other bedcovers provided by the camp operator shall be kept in a sanitary condition.

(c) Every bed, bunk, or cot shall have a clear space of at least 12 inches from the floor. Triple-deck facilities shall be prohibited and in dormitory or quarters housing other than family groups double beds shall be prohibited. Single beds shall be spaced not closer than 36 inches laterally or end to end. Double deck facilities shall be spaced not less than 48 inches laterally or 36 inches end to end. There shall be a clear ceiling height above a mattress of not less than 36 inches. The clear space above the lower mattress of a double-deck facility and the bottom of the upper bunk shall be not less than 27 inches.

(d) Sleeping quarters for a group of people of one sex shall be separate from the sleeping quarters occupied by people of a group of the opposite sex except in the housing of families.

(e) Regular inspections of beds and bedding shall be made to insure freedom from vermin. When vermin are found or reported, extermination measures shall be undertaken immediately.

5. Toilets

(a) Toilets and urinals shall be inspected regularly to assure that they are operating properly.

(b) Toilet rooms shall be maintained in a clean and sanitary condition.

(c) Where common toilet facilities are provided an adequate supply of toilet paper shall be provided in each toilet.

6. Laundry, Handwashing, and Bathing Facilities

(a) Laundry and bathing facilities shall be maintained in a clean and sanitary manner.

7. Cooking and Eating Facilities

(a) Where a central mess or multifamily feeding operation is conducted it shall be done in accordance with regulations of the State health authority.

8. Garbage and Other Refuse Storage and Collection

(a) Flytight metal containers approved by the State health authority shall be provided adjacent to each shelter for garbage and other refuse.

(b) Whenever garbage receptacles are full, and at least three times a week, the garbage and refuse shall be collected, and after emptying, cans shall be thoroughly cleaned.

9. Insect and Rodent Control

(a) Effective measures shall be taken to control rats and flies, mosquitoes, bedbugs, and other insect vectors or parasites within the camp premises.

10. Safety and Fire Prevention

(a) First-aid facilities approved by the State health authority or other appropriate State agency shall be maintained and made available in every labor camp for the emergency treatment of injured persons.

(b) First-aid facilities shall be in charge of a responsible person, and shall be readily accessible for use at all times.

(c) All buildings or structures of a camp shall be maintained and used in accordance with the provisions of the State or local regulations relative to fire prevention.

(d) Units of fire-extinguisher equipment shall be so located that a person will not have to travel more than 100 feet from any point to reach the nearest unit and at least 1 unit shall be provided for each 1,000 square feet of floorspace.

(e) The number of appliances of size indicated below shall constitute one unit of fire-extinguisher equipment:

(1) Soda and acid:
  1—2½ gallons.
  2—1½ gallons.
(2) Foam:
  1—2½ gallons.
  2—1½ gallons.
(3) Vaporizing liquid (carbon tetrachloride):
  2—any size from 1 quart to 1 gallon.
(4) Water type:
  1—2½ gallons (stored pressure).
  2—5 gallons (pump type).

(f) All firefighting equipment must be maintained in good operating condition so that the use of such equipment may be instantaneous as the need arises.

(g) Adult occupants shall be properly instructed in fire prevention and in the proper use of such equipment.

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